RATNAGIRI DISTRICT GAZETTEER

MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

Government of Maharashtra

RATNAGIRI DISTRICT

(REVISED EDITION)

(Revised edition of Volume X of the original Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency relating to Ratnagiri and Sawantwadi)

BOMBAY
DIRECTORATE OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING, STATIONERY, AND PUBLICATIONS, MAHARASHTRA STATE
1962

GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

RATNAGIRI DISTRICT

FIRST EDITION : 1880

SECOND EDITION (REVISED) : 1962

PRINTED IN INDIA BY THE MANAGER, GOVERNMENT CENTRAL PRESS, BOMBAY AND PUBLISHED BY THE DIRECTOR, GOVERNMENT PRINTING, STATIONERY AND PUBLICATIONS, MAHARASHTRA STATE, BOMBAY-4.

CONTENTS

PAGE

PART V—PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

PART VI

PREFACE

THE Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency was originally compiled between 1874 and 1884, though the actual publication of the volumes was spread over a period of 27 years. The Ratnagiri District Gazetteer was published in 1880. This revised edition has been prepared under the orders of the Government of Maharashtra. The work was entrusted to an Editorial Board which was specially created for that purpose in 1949.[1] After the reorganization of States in 1957, the Editorial Board was reconstituted.[2] With the formation of the Maharashtra State in May 1960, the Board was again reconstituted. The following are the members of the Editorial Board :—

Diacritical marks to explain the pronunciation of names of places and of words in Indian languages have been used only in three chapters, namely, Chapter 2—History, Chapter 3—The People and Their Culture and Chapter 20—Places of Interest and also in the Directory of Villages and Towns. In other chapters the current spellings have been retained. A key to the diacritical marks used is given at pages 821-22.

P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

BOMBAY :

May 1962.

---

[1] The following members constituted that Board :—Chief Secretary to Government (Shri M. D. Bhat, I.C.S., 1949-52; Shri M. D. Bhansali, I.C.S., 1952-58; Shri K. L. Panjabi, I.C.S., who succeeded Shri Bhansali in 1958, retired in the same year), Prof. C. N. Vakil, Bombay; Dr. G. S. Ghurye, Bombay; Dr. S. M. Katre, Poona; Dr. S. C. Nandimath, Bagalkot; Director of Archives (Dr. P. M. Joshi); Executive Editor and Secretary (Prof. D. G. Karve, 1949-52; Prof. M. R. Palande, 1952-60).

[2] The following were the members of that Board :—Chief Secretary to Government (Shri N. T. Mone, I.C.S.); Shri V. L. Mehta, Bombay; Dr. S. G. Panandikar, Bombay; Dr. S. M. Katre, Poona; Shri Maganbhai Desai, Ahmedabad; Director of Archives (Dr. P. M. Joshi); Executive Editor and Secretary (Prof. M. R. Palande).

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

As early as 1843 an attempt was made to arrange for the preparation of Statistical Accounts of the different districts of the Bombay Presidency. The following extract* will be found interesting as giving an idea of the intention of those who desired to have such Accounts compiled :—

"Government called on the Revenue Commissioner to obtain from all the Collectors as part of their next Annual Report, the fullest available information regarding their districts .... Government remarked that, as Collectors and their Assistants during the large portion of the year moved about the district in constant and intimate communication with all classes, they possessed advantages which no other public officers enjoyed of acquiring a full knowledge of the condition of the country, the causes of progress or retrogradation, the good measures which require to be fostered and extended, the evil measures which call for abandonment, the defects in existing institutions which require to be remedied, and the nature of the remedies to be applied. Collectors also, it was observed, have an opportunity of judging of the effect of British rule on the condition and character of the people, and their caste prejudices, and on their superstitious observances. They can trace any alteration for the better or worse in dwellings, clothing and diet, and can observe the use of improved implements of husbandry or other crafts, the habits of locomotion, the state of education, particularly among the higher classes whose decaying means and energy under our most levelling system compared with that of preceding governments will attract their attention. Finally they can learn how far existing village institutions are effectual to their end, and may be made available for self-government and in the management of local taxation for local purposes.

"In obedience to these orders, reports were received from the Collectors of Ahmedabad, Broach, Kaira, Thana and Khandesh. Some of the reports contained much interesting information. These five northern reports were practically the only result of the Circular Letter of 1842."

The matter does not seem to have been pursued any further.

In October 1867, the Secretary of State for India desired the Bombay Government to take concrete steps for the compilation of a Gazetteer of the Presidency on the model of the Gazetteer prepared during that year for the Central Provinces. The Government of Bombay then requested some of its responsible officials to submit a scheme for carrying into effect the orders of Secretary of State, and in 1868, appointed the Bombay Gazetteer Committee to supervise and direct the preparation of the Gazetteer. After a few organizational experiments the responsibility was finally entrusted to Mr. James M. Campbell of the Bombay Civil Service, who commenced the compilation in 1874 and completed the series in 1884. The actual publication, however, of these volumes was spread over a period of 27 years between 1877 and 1904 in which year the last General Index volume was published.

Though a Gazetteer literally means only a geographical index or a geographical dictionary, the scope of this particular compilation was much wider. It included not only a description of the physical and natural features of a region but also a broad narrative of the social, political, economic and cultural life of the people living in that region. The purpose which the Gazetteer was

* Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part I (History of Gujarat), pp. III and IV.

intended to serve was made clear in the following remarks of Sir William Hunter, Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India, when his opinion was sought on a draft article on Dharwar District in 1871. He said—

> "My own conception of the work is that, in return for a couple of days' reading, the Account should give a new Collector, a comprehensive, and, at the same time, a distinct idea of the district which he has been sent to administer. Mere reading can never supersede practical experience in the district administration. But a succinct and well conceived district account is capable of antedating the acquisition of such personal experience by many months and of both facilitating and systematising a Collector's personal enquiries......... But in all cases a District Account besides dealing with local specialities should furnish a historical narration of its revenue and expenditure since it passed under the British rule, of the sums which we have taken from it in taxes, and of the amount which we have returned to it in the protection of property and person and the other charges of civil Government." *

The Gazetteer was thus intended to give a complete picture of the district to men who were entire strangers to India and its people but who as members of the ruling race carried on their shoulders the responsibility of conducting its administration.

The Gazetteer had 27 Volumes, some split up into two or three Parts, making a total of 35 books including the General Index which was published in 1904. Some of the Volumes were of a general nature and were not confined to the limits of a particular district. For example, Volume I dealt with History and was split up into two Parts, one dealing with Gujarat and the other with Konkan, Dekhan and Southern Maratha Country; Volume IX was devoted to the Population of Gujarat and contained two parts, one describing Hindus and the other Mussalmans and Parsis, but there was no corresponding Volume devoted to the Population of Maharashtra or Karnatak; Volume XXV gave an account of the Botany of the area covered in the whole Presidency. The remaining volumes dealt with various districts of the Presidency and with what were then known as Native States attached to the Bombay Presidency. Some of the District Volumes had two or three parts, for example, those of Thana, Kanara, Poona and Bombay. On the other hand, there was only one combined volume for some districts, as for example, Surat and Broach, and Kaira and Panch Mahals.

The scheme of the contents was more or less the same for all the District Volumes though the accounts of particular items varied considerably from district to district. Information was collected from Government offices and, in respect of social and religious practices, from responsible citizens. Eminent scholars, experts and administrators contributed articles on special subjects.

This Gazetteer compiled over seventy-five years ago had long become scarce and entirely out of print. It contained authentic and useful information on several aspects of life in a district and was considered to be of great value to the administrator, and scholar and the general reader. There was a general desire that there should be a new and revised edition of this monumental work. The then Government of Bombay, therefore, decided that the old Gazetteer should be revised and republished, and entrusted the work of revision to an Editorial Board specially created for that purpose in 1949. This new

* Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I. Part I (History of Gujarat), p. VII.

edition has been prepared under the direction of that Editorial Board. With the reorganization of States in 1956 and with the coming into existence of the State of Maharashtra in 1960, areas for which no District Gazetteer had previously been compiled will be taken up and new District Gazetteers will be compiled in accordance with the common pattern.

In the nature of things, after a lapse of over 80 years after their publication, most of the statistical information contained in the old Gazetteer had become entirely out of date and had to be dropped altogether. In this edition an attempt has been made to give an idea of the latest developments, whether in regard to the administrative structure or the economic set-up or in regard to social, religious and cultural trends. There are portions in the old Gazetteer bearing on archæology and history which have the impress of profound scholarship and learning and their worth has not diminished by the mere passage of time. Even in their case, however, some restatement is occasionally, necessary in view of later investigations and new archæological discoveries by scholars, and an attempt has been made to incorporate in this edition, the results of such subsequent research. The revision of the old Volumes has, in fact, meant an entire rewriting of most of the chapters and sections. In doing so, statistical and other information was obtained from the relevant Departments of Government, and articles on certain specialised subjects were obtained from competent scholars.

In this dynamic world, circumstances and facts of life change, and so do national requirements and social values. Such significant changes have taken place in India as in other countries during the last half a century, and more so after the advent of Independence in 1947. The general scheme and contents of this revised series of the Gazetteer have been adapted to the needs of altered conditions. There is inevitably some shift in emphasis in the presentation and interpretation of certain phenomena. For example, the weighted importance given to caste and community in the old Gazetteer cannot obviously accord with the ideological concepts of a secular democracy, though much of that data may have considerable interest from the functional, sociological or cultural point of view. What is necessary is a change in perspective in presenting that account so that it could be viewed against the background of a broad nationalism and the synthesis of a larger social life. It is also necessary to abridge and even to eliminate, elaborate details about customs and practices which no longer obtain on any extensive scale or which are too insignificant to need any elaboration. In the revised Gazetteer, therefore, only a general outline of the practices and customs of the main sections of the population has been given.

An important addition to the District Volume in this edition is the Directory of Villages and Towns given at the end which contains, in a tabulated form, useful information about every village and town in the district. The district maps given in this edition are also fairly large and up-to-date.

The revised Gazetteer will be published in two series :—

1. *The General Series.*—This will comprise Volumes on subjects which can best be treated for the State as a whole and not for the smaller area

of a district. As at present planned, they will deal with Physical Features, People and Their Culture, History, Language and Literature, Botany, and Public Administration.

2. *The District Series.*—This will contain one Volume for every district of the Maharashtra State. The information given in all Volumes will follow the same pattern, and the table of contents will more or less be the same for all districts.

It was originally thought feasible to number the district volumes in the alphabetical order in the District Series and accordingly the Poona Volume which was the first revised District Gazetteer to be compiled and published by the Board (in 1954), was numbered as Volume XX. However, the arrangement was not found to be suitable and it was, therefore, subsequently decided not to give any number to any volume.

In the preparation of this volume, the Board has received every assistance from the Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, Government of India. A draft copy of this volume was sent to the Gazetteers Unit and was returned with valuable suggestions which have been incorporated in the volume. The Government of India gives a grant-in-aid of Rs. 6,000 per volume towards the cost of compilation and 40 per cent. of the actual printing charges.

P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

BOMBAY :
May 1962.

G. PZ. P. POONA, H/2401-12-61.

RATNAGIRI

PART I

CHAPTER I—PHYSICAL FEATURES AND NATURAL RESOURCES. *

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.

SITUATION.

THE DISTRICT OF RATNAGIRI (15° 36′ N and 18° 5′ N, 73° 5′ E and 74° 36′ E) has an area of 5,020·9 square miles and a population of 17,11,964. Administratively, it consists of 15 sub-divisions[1] (the details of area, population and major land use of these divisions are given in the Appendix to this section on page 12. Geographically, it is the southern most district of the Maharashtra State, with considerable variations in relief and climate, and in social and economic environment in its different parts. The district has a north-south length of about 300 miles, from its northern boundary near the village of Mhapral to its southern most point near Dodamarg in the former Sawantwadi State. It has an average east-west extension of about 40 miles, except in its extremities which taper to join the coast-line, its maximum width being from the Ratnagiri port, due east, to the border across the Amba Ghat in the Sahyadris.

Boundaries.

The boundaries of the Ratnagiri district are, for the most part, administrative and only in portions coincide with natural features. Apart from the coast-line of the Arabian Sea forming its western limit, the Savitri river in the north separates, over the major portion, this district from that of Kolaba. The Sahyadrian scarp, ending abruptly in some places to create spectacular scenery, also serves as a boundary between Ratnagiri on one hand and the Satara, Sangli and Kolhapur districts on the other.

* The sections on geography (pp. 1-21) are contributed by Shri C. D. Deshpande, Chairman, S. S. C. Board, Maharashtra State, Poona.

[1] To the new district of Ratnagiri are now added the territories of the former Sawantwadi State; and there have been some adjustments in sub-divisional boundaries also.

CHAPTER 1.
—
Physical Features.
SITUATION.

The Savitri river forms a boundary for a stretch of 24 miles, though along the coast some portion north of the Savitri also belongs to the Ratnagiri district. East of Mhapral, the boundary follows an irregular chain of hills having a north-west and south-east trend. This chain joins the main range of the Sahyadris near the Hatlot pass and separates the Ratnagiri district from the southern extremity of the Kolaba district. On the west lies the Arabian Sea, giving the district a seaboard of about 160 miles, from the Bankot Fort in the north to a point some two miles south of the Redi port in the south. On the east, the water-shed of the Sahyadrian main range, from Hatlot to Ram in Sawantwadi forms a well-defined natural boundary. The administrative line almost coincides with this natural feature except at one or two points where villages east of the water-shed form a part of the district.

The southern boundary is more irregular. It separates the Sawantwadi portion of the district first from the Kolhapur district, then over a very small section from the Mysore State and in the southern extremity from the territory of Goa. Nearer the coast line the Ratnagiri area extends as a narrow tongue of land between the sea and the Goa territory, almost to a point near the Terekhol Fort. This part of the boundary as a whole is influenced by water-sheds and forests, and is accordingly difficult to traverse and much more difficult, as is borne out by the recent experiences to maintain as a boundary between the Indian Union and the Portuguese occupied Goa. In the interior, the Sawantwadi portion of the district projects as a wedge between the Goa territory on the west and the Belgaum district on the east to enclose the Sahyadrian hill regions as far south as Bhedshi.

Relief Features and Drainage.

The relief features of the district are essentially the product of its geological past, the nature of its geological composition—an account of which is given elsewhere—and the agents of denudation working on the geological mantle. The outstanding feature in the relief of the district is its highly uneven nature and the very narrow riverine plains that fringe the coast-line. Over 85 per cent. of the land surface is hilly. On the east this consists of the steep and forbidding scarp of the main Sahyadris. In the centre are the transverse chains of small hills, which projecting from the main range, develop higher elevations in their middle portions. These are separated from each other by undulating plateaus which gain in area and scenic effect westwards as the coast-line is approached. The coast-line is irregular marked by alternating bluff and curving bays, but it is shallow and hence has a limited use for navigation. The landscape of the Ratnagiri district is basically influenced by the Deccan lavas which cover most of the area except the southern and south-eastern part which is underlain by metamorphic types. The typical lava landscape developed under tropical humid conditions persists almost everywhere. But locally even this general aspect has five different types, the coast line, the estuarine alluvial plains and basins of the main rivers, the laterite plateaus, the highly eroded remnant hills,

partly detached from and partly connected to the main range, and the scarp face of the Sahyadris proper. These patterns as they occur from west to east, are described in detail below :—

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.

RELIEF FEATURES AND DRAINAGE.

Coast-line.

The coast-line of the district extends to about 250 miles. It is uniformly rocky and shallow, though locally there is a good deal of variation in the form of projecting bluffs and promontories that enclose small sandy bays. These are interspersed by estuaries of the more important rivers and the mouths of numerous minor streams. All these variations in relief exercise a very significant influence on the scenic features of the landscape and their economic use by the inhabitants of the district. The coast-line is marked with several islands, the result of a drowned topography. Those like Suvarndurg, Malvan and Narayandurg were important Maratha forts. The shallow sea and silted estuaries make navigation difficult except for the smallest craft. The bluffs and promontories are underlain by hard laterite ; they support little vegetation and only the narrow fringe at their base are marked here and there, by lines of cocoanut palms and patches of cultivation in an area that is generally strewn with large eroded boulders. The bare and rocky appearance of the headlands continues over the wider plateaus in the interior. Only the small alluvial estuaries are useful for agriculture. The junction between such fertile patches and barren lateritic slopes generally favours the development of villages. The head lands have played a very important role as forts in the Maratha history.

Estuarine Plains and River Basins.

The central portion of the district is furrowed by numerous streams which have mostly a parallel drainage pattern. Rising from the Sahyadrian scarp these streams drain the waters to the Arabian Sea through a region that is hilly and mostly bare. Their basins, accordingly, are narrow and rocky. Their flood regime is also unsuitable for the development of good soil and agriculture. Thus the upper and middle reaches of these rivers do not favour much economic development. Only the estuarine portions have comparatively good soils, and they indeed form agriculturally the best lands of the district. Such, for example, are the Savitri, the Vasishthi and the Shastri estuaries

Lateritic Plateaus.

So broad is the expanse of the plateau of the Ratnagiri district that the deeply entrenched river courses are hardly visible from the plateau surface. Scientists are still not agreed as to the origin of these plateau surfaces though opinion seems to favour the view that they are the products of the lateritic material brought down from the Sahyadrian hill regions. Compact and undulating, these plateaus offer bleak landscape ; bare rock often craggy in appearance, grasses of the poorest type and an occasional shrub make up the typical scenery in these plateaus. Their transition to lower levels is maked by abrupt slopes to entrenched river courses, and to higher levels by more gradual slopes to residual basaltic hills that traverse the central portions of the district.

Residual Hills.

These residual hills, oddly enough, present a contrast in appearance. Being made of lava flows they show the typical banded and terraced

CHAPTER 1. — Physical Features. RELIEF FEATURES AND DRAINAGE. Residual Hills.

form, with a pronounced tendency to develop flat tops and smoother contours. But the tropical humid heat as well as the heavy monsoonal downpour cause intense gully erosion and development of a furrowed appearance on these hill features. However, they break the monotony of the lateritic plateaus by their appearance and vegetation cover which more often consists of strands of rich monsoonal forests. While lateritic plateaus seldom rise more than 500 feet above sea level, these hills record generally higher elevations varying from 600 to 1,100 feet above sea level. Many of these hills, owing to their commanding position became strategic fortified points during the Maratha period. Thus Mandangad, about 14 miles from Dapoli, is a conspicuous landmark for many miles around. South-east of Mandangad lies Palgad (1,091 ft.). Nearer the Sahyadrian scarp these detatched hills are in fact a physical 'outlier' of the main range separated from it by an agelong process of denudation and underlain by hard basaltic core. As forts controlling the Sahyadrian passes, from the Konkan side, Mahipatgad (3,090 ft.) in the extreme north, Sumargad (3,090 ft.), Rasalgad (1,770 ft.) facing the Amboli Ghat, Mashal (3,348 ft.) opposite the Vishalgad route, were important in Maratha history.

Sahyadrian Main Range.

While the hills of the central parts of the district, as viewed from the heights of the main range such as Mahabaleshwar or Vishalgad or Bavada, display a chaotic arrangement in trend lines and from the main range of the Sahyadris as seen from the Konkan approaches offers an imposing sight in its vastness and splendour. The crest-line is smooth though often notched by saddles and rising flat tops. The dark lava bands of which the Sahyadris are in this section made up, extend across the bare face of the scarp, in succession at various levels and separating the weaker rocks which support a typical monsoonal vegetation. The scarp face has suffered heavy erosion, so that several portions have been detached from the main range and they appear as isolated small plateau or in extreme cases as pillars standing out prominently to create a scenery of fantasy. Although these are detached and isolated forms, their genetic relationship with the main range is clearly visible through the arrangement of the horizontal lava bands. The scarp face proper is steep and is marked by a succession of amphitheatres of drainage where the numerous gullies flowing down the scarp wall coalesce to create the rivers flowing across the central and western parts of the district, to drain the waters to the Arabian Sea. The scarp wall is regarded as the fractured face of the Sahyadris, though it is more than likely that in its present position it marks a recession from the actual zone where faulting must have initially taken place. The wall retains its typically 'trap' or stair-like appearance, but is furrowed intensively by the fast flowing streams. The more resistant of the Deccan lavas stand out prominently as hill chains, and being thus linked to the main range, they appear as transverse hills with east-west trend to the main range which has a general north-south trend. Thus the scarp face from north to south is a succession of sections marked by drainage amphitheatres and intervening residual hills. These

CHAPTER 1.

—

Physical Features.

RELIEF FEATURES AND DRAINAGE.

Sahyadrian Main Range.

physical features of the Sahyadrian scarp are all too prominent in their youthful appearance. The crest of the Sahyadris, on the other hand, shows a contrast that is both amazing and spectacular. On the Sahyadrian top levels, on one hand there are precipitous depths with rapidly flowing streams and crumbling rock formations that are hurled down by the monsoonal torrents; and literally, within a furlong to the east of the scarp, one comes across a gentle undulating topography that shows all the features of a mature landscape. Such features are quite familiar to visitors to Mahabaleshwar. Bavda and Amboli. This great contrast in land form has got another significance. So rapid is the erosion on the scarp face, that the scarp itself is receding eastwards by devouring the gentle landscapes of the Deccan plateau. There are several river captures from the plateau areas, i.e., diversions of waters from the east-flowing rivers to the west, and thus the peaks, the plateau levels, and the passes which mark the crest-line of the Sahyadrian main range and which have influenced the past and present of the people are essentially Nature's creations through this gigantic process of erosion. The crest-line records an average height of about 2,500 ft. above sea-level, with plateau tops and saddles being the local variations. In the Maratha history, these became famous forts like Bhairavgad (2,990 ft.), Shivgad (2,371 ft.), Prachitgad (3,127 ft.), Manohar (2,500 ft.) and Mansantoshgad (2,500 ft.). The lower saddles became the pass routes connecting this part of the Konkan with the plateau regions to the east. Thus from the north to south are the Hatlot pass, Ambavli ghat, Kumbharli, Tivra, Mala, South Tivra, Kundi, Amba, Vishalgad, Anaskura, Bavda, Phonda, Amboli (in Sawantwadi), Ram, and several other ghats Of these, the more important now are the Ambavli connecting Khed with Mahabaleshwar; the Kumbharli, Chiplun with Karad; the Amba, Ratnagiri with Kolhapur; the Phonda, Deogad with Nipani; and the Amboli, Sawantwadi with Belgaum.

Rivers—their form, flood regime and navigability.

As has been said above, the drainage of the district is mostly parallel, but the tributary pattern in the centre tends at places to be rectangular, suggesting the adaptation of streams to local rock structure. This adaptation to structure is also well seen in the sharp meanders which many rivers show in their middle and lower reaches. The major rivers receive their waters from the Sahyadrian main range, and flow westwards to the Arabian Sea through deep well cut channels. In length, they seldom exceed forty miles. Each of them, however, has a small drainage area and hence they are of small size and volume. Their intensely seasonal regime is yet another limitation to their economic use. In the monsoonal seasons, they become rushing torrents of water, but during the rest of the year, they develop threaded channels of sluggish or stagnant water in the otherwise dry and bouldery beds, with hardly a capacity for fulfilling the local need for drinking water. This seasonal regime and the deeply entrenched nature of their beds make the rivers of the district unsuitable for irrigation though attempts are now under way to develop lift irrigation and bunding under modern

CHAPTER 1.
—
Physical Features.
RELIEF FEATURES AND DRAINAGE.
Rivers.

methods of engineering. Inspite of these natural drawbacks, the rivers are of great value to the district, particularly from the point of view of navigation. Their channels navigable for 20 miles or more, in conjunction with roads between the ports and their Deccan hinterland, afford easy means of communication and facilitate commerce. Their broad estuaries are suitable for local craft engaged in coastal trade, and along their low tidal banks are found some of the best agricultural lands of the district.

Besides the larger rivers, there are many small streams, creeks, and inlets, which have no communication with the interior. And during the south-west monsoon innumerable little rills and rivulets springing up in all directions drain into patches of level ground and convert them into good rice fields.

Savitri.

This is the northernmost of the more important rivers of the district, and as has been already noted it acts as a boundary for about 24 miles between this district and the Kolaba district. The river takes its rise from the Mahabaleshwar hill complex. In the local Hindu tradition, it is one of the five sacred rivers, the Panch Gangas, which owe their source in the sanctified region of Mahabaleshwar. The Savitri in its course of about 50 miles, has an ungraded course in the region of the Sahyadrian main range, with rocky channel and steep banks. Outside the mountain tract it develops a meandering course and passes by the town of Mahad in the Kolaba district. The old port of Mhapral marks the northern boundary of the Ratnagiri district. From this point to the region of the mouth of the river, it does not receive any tributary. The mouth is marked by bluffs jutting out on either side into the sea. It is on the southern headland that the historically well known Bankot fort is situated. The old fort is in ruins, and on the shores of the creek are traces of the first English Residency in the southern Konkan. Bankot is only a fair weather port. A formidable sand bar makes anchorage difficult. The port can be used only by small coasting vessels. The river is navigable for about 36 miles upstream to the town Mahad in Kolaba, but only for small vessels drawing seven feet of water Large vessels can go only up to Mhapral in Ratnagiri district about 24 miles from the mouth of the river. Between Bankot and Mhapral, the passage is smooth and large crafts work up on a single tide. But between Mhapral and Mahad the river narrows, and shoals, rocky ledges and reefs are numerous, making navigation difficult even for smaller crafts; and the process of silting up has made navigation all the more difficult. There are several points where the river could be forded, Bankot and Bagmandla being the most frequented. The other points are Shipola, Panderi, Nigodi and Mhapral and the villages opposite them in the Kolaba district. From the mouth of the river upstream the scenery improves a great deal, in that its hills present a picturesque landscape. Further inland, the table-land features recede from the river banks, to develop broad belts of alluvial low land with interspersed patches of mangrove swamp. But as one goes upstream towards Mahad the banks become flat and uninteresting.

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.

RELIEF FEATURES AND DRAINAGE.

Rivers.

Vasishthi.

The Vasishthi running parallel to the Savitri has a course of about 30 miles and is the most important river of the district from the point of view of length and navigational facilities. Its source waters rise in the Tivra section of the Sahyadris. In its mountainous course, it develops a narrow and steep profile. On reaching the plain tract, it develops a meandering course. Here the river becomes tidal. It is at this point that the commercial town of Chiplun is situated. Below the island of Govalkot, the river widens in sweeping meanders and after a course of 25 miles through low mud banks and mangrove, it reaches the sea in the shape of a shallow estuary that is marked by promontories on either side. As with the Savitri the estuarine mouth on the Vasishthi has a sand-bar that reduces the navigational advantage of the river. On the southern headland of the estuary stands the old fort of Anjanwel, and on the north, the once famous port of Dabhol. Situated on a narrow strip of low ground between the creek and the neighbouring steep hill, the present appearance of Dabhol hardly suggests its former greatness. During stormy weather condition, Dabhol offers a better anchorage to the small sailing craft than Anjanwel, but all the same both these ports are essentially fair weather ports with a limited advantage.

Jagbudi.

The Jagbudi, the principal tributary of the Vasishthi on the north, rises near the Hatlot pass of the Sahyadris. In its first 12 miles, the stream runs almost from north to south, and there develops a sharp bend to flow westwards for the next 12 miles and again resumes its southward trend till it joins the Vasishthi. These sharp, almost right angled, bends of the river are suggestive of drainage intricacies of the Konkan coastlands. Where the river becomes tidal—about 12 miles upstream—is situated the local commercial and administrative centre of Khed. Several smaller tributaries are received by the Vasishthi on either bank, only some of the larger ones being tidal are useful for navigation. The passage in the smaller stream is obstructed by mud-banks and mangroves. The Vasishthi, however, is at any stage of the tide navigable for large sized craft as far as the village of Diva about eight miles below Govalkot, which is the landing place for Chiplun. Larger craft can work up on the tide of Govalkot, 28 miles from the mouth of the river, to unload the cargo directly in the local jetty or into smaller craft which carry it upstream to Chiplun. Smaller vessels can reach as far as Khed upstream the Jagbudi river. The triangular island of Govalkot formed by the two arms of the river is important both on account of its historic fort and landing facilities as well as the rich agricultural land outside the fort. Downstream, the course of the Vasishthi is again interrupted by several small islands of no human importance. Below Govalkot, the river can be forded at two main points between Tarībunder and Dabhol, and betwetn Maldoli and Hodkhad.

Shastri.

South of the Vasishthi river, the Shastri flows from the east to the west and drains a part of the district. It takes its source waters in the Sahyadris near the Prachitgad fort and has a total length of about 40 miles when, it meets the sea in an estuary, the adjoining

CHAPTER 1.
—
Physical Features.
RELIEF FEATURES AND DRAINAGE.
Rivers.
Shastri.

promontory of which supports the Jayagad fort. The first 16 miles of the river belong to a steep mountainous tract. Where the river leaves this tract to enter the coast land is situated the taluka town of Sangameshwar. Below this town the river is joined by the tributary stream of Bav, and has a generally north-westerly trend right up to the sea. The river is tidal up to Sangameshwar. Of the several small tributary streams, the Bav is the more important. Rising in the Sahyadris near the Amba pass the Bav develops a fertile valley and joins the Shastri on the left bank about 20 miles upstream the main river. On the right bank of the Shastri, the Gadnadi is the main tributary. The estuary of the Shastri has a broad but shallow aspect. Though Jayagad is a good port for the smaller craft, the sand-bar across the Shastri mouth presents difficulties. The river is tidal up to Sangameshwar, but its navigability is severely limited by the shallow waters, and silted reaches. Similarly the Gadnadi and the Bav have a very limited navigational advantage. The Shastri can be forded at four important places between Tavasal and Laiegan, between Jambhari and Kudli, between Phangas and Dingne; and between Sangameshwar and Asurda. The Bav is usually fordable at Vandri and Parchuri.

Ratnagiri.

Twenty-five miles south of the Shastri lies the Ratnagiri river. Rising in the Amba pass, it has a course of about 40 miles. At its mouth this stream is narrow and has a sand-bar. On the north, lies the promontory on which stands the old fort of Ratnagiri. The mouth offers anchorage only to small craft which can go upstream up to about 12 miles with the tide. The river is crossed by ferries at two points.

Muchkundi.

The Muchkundi rises in the heights of Machal in the Sahyadrian range, near Prabhanavli, and flows parallel to the Ratnagiri, to its south, to empty its waters into the Purangad creek. It is navigable for about twelve miles upstream, and on its northern bank stands on a bluff the fort of Purangad.

Jaitapur.

South of the Muchkundi, the land is drained by the Jaitapur river which taking its source waters from the Anaskura tract of the Sahyadris, develops first a south-westerly course for nearly two-third of its length, and then takes a due westward turn to join the sea in the Jaitapur creek. Widway between the source and the mouth, stands on the north-bank the historical trading centre of Rajapur. The Jaitapur creek is protected by a promotory on its north. On this bluff stands the Yeshwantgad fort. The opening of the creek is narrow, but inside, the river broadens out and is navigable up to three miles off Rajapur for medium sized craft. The ferry at Jaitapur connects two points on the northern bank.

Vaghotan.

Immediately south of the Jaitapur creek lies another parallel flowing river which at its mouth is known as the Vijayadurg creek and upstream as the Vaghotan river. Rising in the Kajorda region of the Sahyadris, the river flows south eastwards for about 15 miles, where it becomes tidal. At this point is situated the old trading

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.

RELIEF FEATURES AND DRAINAGE.

Rivers.

Vaghotan.

centre of Kharepatan. Below Kharepatan, the river rapidly widens and joins the sea in a wide estuary that is protected from the south by the rocky height of the Vijayadurg fort. This promontory gives a good protection to craft from the south-west monsoon and the wide estuary gives spacious room. The estuary is comparatively free from sand-bars, and so at the immediate entrance there is good depth for vessels of large size, but inside, it rapidly shoals to offer a depth of about twelve feet to the sailing craft. After rounding Vijayadurg, the channel turns south-east for about four miles almost parallel to the coast-line, and then gradually curves eastwards. At the bend of the river, a large back water runs south for about three miles to create the narrow peninsula of Bheria. The river is navigable for vessels of medium size up to the town of Vaghotan and for smaller sized craft up to Kharepatan which is 20 miles inland.

Deogad.

The Deogad river has a similar parallel flowing course of about thirty miles from the Shivgad pass to its mouth which is protected by the Deogad promontory from the south. The river is navigable only for a few miles and is comparatively unimportant from the economic point of view.

Achra.

The Achra is a small river in the sense that it has a few tributaries, though its length is about thirty miles. It rises near the Phonda Ghat. A prominent headland separates the estuary of this river from that of the Deogad river. The river is navigable only up to a few miles.

Kalavli.

The Kalavli rises in the Bhudargad heights of the Sahyadris, and on receiving the waters of the Gadnadi, takes a south-westerly course and joins the sea three miles north of Malvan. The estuary is influenced by a developing sand-bar from the north. The river is forded at two points and has a very limited navigability.

Karli.

This river is known as Sarambal in upper reaches and as Karli only near its mouth. It rises near Manohargad in the Sahyadris, and after a winding course of about fifty miles, joins the sea about eight miles south of Malvan. Sand-pits and shallow mouth have considerably reduced the importance of this river though it is navigable for about fourteen miles upstream up to Anav for medium sized vessels. There are some ferries across the river though during the monsoons fording is difficult at all points.

Terekhol.

The southern-most river of the district is known in its upper reaches as the Banda river and in the lower as the Terekhol. Rising in the environs of the Manohargad in the Sahyadris, the river flows south-west to meet the sea. As far as Banda, about fifteen miles from the sea, it is tidal and navigable to medium sized vessels, but larger craft cannot pass beyond Aronda which is three miles upstream from the estuary. Though the Terekhol can be forded at several points in the fair weather season, it becomes a formidable rush of waters during the monsoonal season. The river forms

CHAPTER 1.
—
Physical Features.
RELIEF FEATURES AND DRAINAGE.
Minor Creeks.

a boundary for some distance between the Ratnagiri district and the Goa territory.

In addition to these main rivers, the district has numerous small creeks and back waters all along the coast line. The more important are the Kelshi creek (between Bankot and Suvarndurg), the Ada creek (two miles to the south of the Kelshi), the Palshey and Borya bays (between Vasishthi and the Shastri), the Ganapatipule, Nevre, Are and Kalbadevi, (just north of the Ratnagiri creek) and the Redi creek (in the southern extremity of the district). All these creeks afford anchorage to small craft in fair weather and have a local importance in trade and fisheries.

GEOGRAPHICAL REGIONS.

The foregoing description of the physical features and natural environment lends a favourable setting for understanding the regional patterns in the district. Ratnagiri is typical Konkan with all that is implied in the word; a monsoonal land with great contrast in nature, of heights and plains, of wet and dry seasons, of forested and cultivated stretches, of bare lateritic plateau surfaces and intensely tilled valleys. But this contrast of nature, paradoxically, is not reflected in its human element. The keynote to human life in Ratnagiri district is economic insufficiency with all the attendant problems. Yet regionally there is an interesting variation in landscapes and patterns of human economy. Broadly it is possible to recognise three belts parallel to the coast line and the inland Sahyadris. The eastern portion consists of the main areas of the Sahyadrian Range and its transverse members sprawling into the (Konkan) plain. The mountainous face is deeply scarred by ravines, and the Deccan Lava topography yields the typical step-like appearance, with bold and bleak scarps alternating with softer debris slopes Vegetation, which is mostly monsoonal forests, follows intimately the alternating patterns. On the crest line, towards the Maharashtra plateau, the landscape suddenly changes into a mellowed smooth contoured topography. But at the Sahyadrian base in the Konkan, ruggedness is evident all round. Many of the peaks carry the famous Maratha fortresses, and weaker rocks have given way to create the famous Ghat routes. The topographical influence of the Sahyadris continues westward through the minor ranges to a distance ranging between fifteen to twenty miles. The characteristic feature that is common all over is the destruction of vegetal cover and bare rocky expanses. This is a stark contrast to the luxuriant forest growth southwards in Goa and Kanara. Imporverished forest areas and shifting cultivation are not uncommon to this part of the Ratnagiri district, and consequently population is thin, economically backward and culturally isolated. Villages dot along the main stream courses, and only at the foot of the leading passes does a village grow into a township.

To the west of this Sahyadrian and sub-Sahyadrian region of the district, the hilly landscape opens out to form an undulating aspect which could be as best called plateau surface deeply notched by the parallel flowing streams and their tributaries. Practically most

of this surface belongs to the low level laterite that offers a bare and bleak appearance due to the destruction of earlier vegetation. Now nothing but coarse grass and shrubs grow. Here rough grazing of the stunted cattle population is the natural response. This monotony in landscape is relieved only along the deeply entrenched stream courses where meandering sweeps create alluvial patches. On these, intensive rice cultivation and cocoanut and betel-nut gardening are practised and that gives the landscape a verdant appearance. The majority of the villages dot along these courses, and most of them consist of strings of homesteads succeeding in one field and another. Population is essentially agricultural. The more important villages and township are concerned with commerce and transport and they have a remarkable similarity in their geographical location and economic functions. They are situated just where the Sahyadrian foot hills open out to merge in the lateritic plateaus and where the rivers have their tidal limit. Such are, from north to south, Mhapral (pop. 2,820), Khed (pop. 6,477), Chiplun (pop. 15,847), Devrukh (pop. 6,470), Rajapur (pop. 8,023), Kharepatan (pop. 3,400), and Banda (pop. 4,154). Each of these towns is situated at the navigable limit of a river and controls the 'Ghat' route beyond. Before the days of steam-ships and railways, they enjoyed a much greater importance than at present, for goods used to be transported more economically on pack bullocks and sailing crafts and these towns flourished because they were the points of transhipment. Development of railways on the Maharashtra plateau considerably reduced their importance and with the new roads and faster motor traffic developing in the Ratnagiri district, these towns may further recede into the background.

It is difficult to say where this plateau tract of the Ratnagiri district ends and where the coastal 'plains' begin, for these landscapes dovetail into each other so frequently that any clear-cut demarcation must appear artificial. Yet, there is a visible change as one approaches the coastline; wide estuaries, open expanses of cultivation and the salt laden atmosphere have an unmistakable 'milieu' of their own lateritic areas from water sheds between rivers and their promontories—which are the sites of the famous Maratha forts—projecting into the Arabian sea. But below them, in the estuarine areas nestle villages and their cultivated fields covered by lines of cocoanut palms, and at the mouth of the estuary itself has a town which had its hey-day in the olden Moghal and Maratha regimes. Thus each estuary is a focus of human activity—mostly agricultural but partly marine, and till the development of the roads in the interior, was connected to the hinterland by the ghat routes and with the outer world through its small port. Thus Dabhol (pop. 5,065), Guhagar (pop. 5,031), Jayagad (pop. 2,309), Ratnagiri (pop. 27,082), Vijayadurg (pop. 2,506), Deogad (pop. 2,493), Malvan (pop. 29,851), Vengurla (pop. 22,778) and Redi (pop. 4,183), were important ports in the medieval and pre-British period. Even now they retain their function as local trade and administrative centres. Ratnagiri, due to its position as the district headquarters, has become more important

CHAPTER 1.
Physical Features.
GEOGRAPHICAL REGIONS.

than others. But the common features of inadequate means of sustenance prevail both in town and country side. That explains the well known seasonal and permanent exodus of the able bodied population to Bombay and other active areas in search of employment. What remains in the district, therefore, is economically ineffective and dependent element, either too young or too old, and unless developmental measures to promote agriculture, good water supply, industry including fisheries and communication are actively taken up the geographical face of the district will continue to remain inert and unprogressive.

APPENDIX.

Administrative Divisions of Ratnagiri district, with their area, population and number of villages and towns therein, according to the Census of 1951.

Divisions.	Name of Taluka/Mahal.	Area in square miles.	No. of villages.	No. of Towns.	Population.
Ratnagiri ..	Ratnagiri ..	357·5	121	1	1,59,377
	Rajapur ..	495·7	144	3	1,46,541
	Lanje ..	283·0	84	..	77,921
	Deogad ..	283·7	64	..	97,918
Chiplun ..	Chiplun ..	434·4	131	1	1,53,102
	Khed ..	385·8	146	1	1,24,861
	Guhagar ..	242·2	78	..	87,986
	Sangameshwar ..	499·1	169	2	1,48,391
Dapoli ...	Dapoli ..	326·9	151	..	1,29,105
	Mandangad ..	160·3	91	..	48,958
Sawantwadi.	Sawantwadi ..	515·9	120	1	1,24,291
	Malvan ..	256·1	57	1	1,29,814
	Kankavli ..	299·2	67	..	1,03,101
	Kudal ..	316·4	75	2	1,01,543
	Vengurla ..	126·6	17	1	79,215
	Total ..	4,982·8	1,515	13	17,11,964

CHAPTER 1.
Physical Features.
GEOLOGY.

GEOLOGY*.—Except for a few scattered areas, the district has not been entirely geologically mapped. The geological formations in the area, which, in descending order of their antiquity, are as below :—

Coastal sands, soil and Alluvium.	Recent and Sub-Recent.
Laterite ..	.. Pleistocene.
Cuddalore Series (?) ..	.. Tertiary.
Deccan trap ..	.. Lower Eocene.
Infra-trappean (?) ..	.. Createceous. (?).
Lower Kaladgi Series ..	. Cuddapah.
Basic and Ultramafic intrusions	
Granite-gneiss with acid veins	
Dharwars. ..	. Archaean.

Dharwars.

Dharwars.—The Archaean and the Cuddapah formations are found only in the southern half of the district, while the entire northern portion of the district, is occupied by lava flows referred to as "Deccan traps". The Dharwars are the most ancient formations in the area and are represented by phyllites, crush conglomerates, quartzites, banded-hematite-quartzites, a variety of schists with variable proportions of garnet, staurolite, and kyanite and composed largely of hornblende and mica and various granulites. The crush conglomerates, quartzites and banded-hematite-quartzites occur as narrow bands almost parallel to the coast and as small reefs and islands off the shore. The other rock types appear to cover the greater portion of the area away from the coast. These rock units have trends paralleling the coast line, i.e., NW-SE. to N.N.W.-S.S.E. suggesting some relation between the strike of the rocks and the run of the coast. The quartzites and banded-hematite-quartzites along the shore near Nivti and Malvan are associated with the crushed and brecciated conglomerates and suggest a thrust plane parallel to the coast. Variations in the strike and dip observed at a number of localities indicate that these rocks have been subjected to intense deformation. Some of these sections are described below :

Narrow bands of crush conglomerates, quartzites and banded-hematite-quartzites, running almost parallel to the coast, near Malvan, Nivti and Redi and also forming small reefs and islands off the shore, show steep easterly dips while the rocks little further inland show a northerly dip, suggesting a thrust parallel to the coast line. Similarly, the gneissic rocks south and south-east of Sawantwadi strike E-W., with an obscure and uncertain dip, while those to the south and south-west of Sawantwadi show NW-SE. srike, and near Manohargad, north of Sawantwadi strike E-W. A little further north, in the Kudal river the rocks strike N-S. Marked disparity in the strike and dip of these rocks is also noticed near Phonda, where they dip towards S.S.E. at low angles while near Durgagad, north of Phonda, they

* The note on 'Geology' was contributed by Shri Y. S. Sahasrabuddhe of the Geological Survey of India.

CHAPTER 1.
Physical Features.
GEOLOGY.
Dharwars.

have north-westerly dips. The schists and quartzites near Kasal show a north-easterly dip, while the same rocks two miles south, show southerly dips.

Mica-schists, mica-garnet-schists, hornblende-schists and chlorite schists are the principal rock types in the Dharwars of this district They form small bands, and near granitic intrusions are associated with biotite-granulites. Good exposures are seen near Vengurla Bunder Hill, Aderi, Kadawal, Satral, Janavli, in the hills north and south-west of Sawantwadi and in the Gad river near Kankavli. Staurolite, kyantie or garnet are developed in the mica-schists in the hills north of Shirvada, near Shravan, Lingras wadi and Gaothan. Presence of tourmaline is invariably noticed in the mica-schists in contact with the granite-gneiss. Hornblende and biotite granulites are exposed near Kankavli, Satral, Janavli, Kasal, Kunda Kasba, Kalsuli, Amrad, Avalegaon, Kadawal, Akeri and Danoli. Granulites also occur as inclusions in the granite-gneiss along the Sawantwadi-Aronda and Sawantwadi-Banda roads. Talc-schists occur frequently in the Sawantwadi taluka and are generally found forming lenses and bands interbedded with other Dharwar rocks. Outcrops are noticed near Bamgarda and near the crossing of the Tilari river and the Ram Pass road near Kudasi. The same band passes northwards to the top of the spur between Sasoli and Kumberal. Good exposures are also noticed near Akeri, north-west of Sawantwadi, Sherli, west of Banda, Vankda, south of Ashmat, the slope of the Tapalwadi Hill at Ajgaon, Jholamba, Bidwadi, Gaothan, Asgani and Kirlosi. Actinolite-schists, composed entirely of actinolite and with a few accessories like rutile, biotite, phlogopite and iron-ore are found associated with hornblende-schists near Kankavli, Talsuli, Nerur, Asoli and Kunda. Good exposures are also noticed at the foot of the Deccan trap hills near Gadge-Sakkal, one mile north of Phonda. A few thin lenses of anthophyllite-schists are met with near Kankavli and Bidwadi. Similar lenses associated with hornblende-schists are also noticed on the bank of the Gad river, west of Kankavli.

Fine to coarse-grained quartzites composed almost entirely of quartz with minor accessories such as muscovite, biotite, tourmaline, magnetite and pyrite, possessing a typical granoblastic texture, occur as small bands all over the southern part of the district. They are developed in force in the hill range north of Shrirvade, Rathivade, Banda, Nivti, Pat and along the coast of Malvan. The quartzites at Malvan and Nivti have hitherto been regarded as a facies of the Kaladgi Series, but recent work shows them to belong to the Dharwar Series. Ferruginous quartzites are noticed near Asoli and below the laterite cap near Kochra, Mahapan, Pat, Parule, Otavane, Banda, Degwe, Mazgaon, Kalne, Kumbrol and Sherla.

Banded-hematite-quartzite forms a small proportion of the Dharwar rocks in the district. About six small bands, 10-20 feet thick, and less than a few hundred feet in length, are found inter-bedded with hornblende-schists near Kankavli and with granulites near *Kiristavwadi*,

A few minor bands are also noticed north-east of Kasal, south-west of Kunda, east of Vagda, Katta, Varad and along the coast, two miles south of Malvan. Banded-hematite-quartzite is conspicuously developed along the southern margin of the district, particularly along the border of the Portuguese occupied territory. A band near Aros which is almost lateritised laterally extends over 1,400 feet with an average width of 300 feet. A band of similar dimensions is also found near Aravali and Satarda. A few parallel bands at Redi extending over two miles in length with an average width of over 1,500 feet are lateritised, and are extensively worked at present for iron-ore. Small exposures, covered by laterite and exposed intermittently, occur near Tiravada about one mile north-east of Ajgaon, south of Wadi Phanasvada, north-west of Aros, one and a half mile north-west of Aravali and along the northern slope of the hill, west of Talavna.

A number of small bands of crushed conglomerates are noticed in the southern portions of the district. Three bands striking N-S., sharply marked off from adjacent hornblende-schists, are exposed in the bed of Gad river south of Pisekamata and about 3¼ miles west by south of Kankavli. Four small bands are also noticed near Sindhudurg, and along the shore near Malvan and Nivti. The pebbles constitute 60 to 70 per cent. of the rock by volume and are somewhat flattened and ellipsoidal in shape. The matrix is siliceous of coherent sandy and gritty material, often stained with ferruginous material.

Granite-gneiss.

Granite-gneiss.—Granite-gneiss, intrusive into the schistose rocks, forms small scattered patches occupying a comparatively small area. All gradations are noticed varying from distinctly gneissic varieties to an evenly granular and porphyritic type. In the porphyritic variety the phenocrysts of microcline are generally set in a medium to coarse-grained matrix composed chiefly of microcline, quartz, oligoclase, biotite and hornblende. A few accessories such as zircon, apatite, sphene and magnetite are common. In the gneissic varieties, the direction of the banding varies between N 10° W to N. 50° W and conform to the strike of the adjacent schistose rocks. Occasionally, these granites exhibit augen structures, suggestive of their having suffered post consolidation deformation.

The most northerly exposure of the gneisses occurs as a small inlier, surrounded by quartzites of the Kaladgi Series, at the base of Deodonger hill north-west of Phonda. Good outcrops of granites showing their intrusive relationship with the Dharwars are noticed near Kankavli, Katta and Koshra. An interesting section of gneissic rocks is seen at Ram Pass near Banda. At the head of the pass light-coloured, highly felspathic gneisses crop out, while lower down the pass, compact, fine-grained, bluish hornblende-gneisses are interbedded with hornblende-schists and quartzites. The strike of the rock is quite persistent throughout the spurs upto the south of Pargad Fort. Another good section in the bend of the Tilari river, west of the fort at Permeg exhibits the light-coloured, gneisses dipping at

CHAPTER 1.
—
Physical Features.
GEOLOGY.
Granite-gneiss.

50° towads south-west. Hornblende-gnesses are widely developed in some parts of the district and are noticed in the following localities : (1) in the hills around Banda, (2) between Ram Pass and Vengurla, (3) between Anai and Fukeri, (4) in the valley east of Oras Budrukh, (5) south of Balamwadi, (6) one mile north-east and south-west of Dankalwadi, (7) on the spur crowned by the Hanmantgad Fort, (8) the hills south-west and north of Sawantwadi, (9) in a river section near Kalmist a couple of miles north of Devsu, and (10) in the high hills of Baravda, Bambarda and Mulda. Isolated patches of granite-gneiss surrounded by lateritised Dharwar rocks are noticed near Sukalwadi, Avalegaon, Pat, Gabit and Vajrat, Kandalgaon, Adali, Dhampur, Kalse and Amberi.

The main granitic intrusion was followed by numerous minor injections of quartz, pegmatite, opatites, etc., in apophysal forms, and are especially found traversing the schistose rocks all over the area. The pegmatites often contain tourmaline and muscovite. Such pegmatites are exposed one mile south-west and north-west of Avlegaon, on the border of Kumbhavadc and Biravane villages and near Kadawal. The mica bearing pegmatite at Kadawal is about 1,600 feet long and nearly 600 feet wide. Numerous small quartz veins conformably intrude the Dharwar rocks and the gneisses. A quartz vein, about 25 feet wide and a little over a mile in length occurs north of Phonda, while few quartz tourmaline veins occur at Rathivade and Varavda. These veins appear to be responsible for the incorporation of tourmaline in the country rocks as in the biotite-schists at Ratambewadi and Shiravda ; the talc-schists along the northern slope of the Tapalwadi hill at Ajgani ; the quartzite at Pisekamta, north-west of Kankavli ; and the hornblende-granulite at Musalman Wadi and at Varavda half a mile north-west of Kankavli.

Basic and Ultramafic intrusions.—Numerous small dykes of basic and ultramafic rocks, intrude the Dharwars and granite-gneisses. They comprise chlorites, dolerites, olivine-dolerites gabbros, picrites and chromite-bearing serpentines. The dykes do not outcrop continuously as they are often obscured by the laterite cover. Following are some of the localities where the dykes are conspicuous : (1) along the coast south of Gabitwadi, (2) two miles south-west of Kochra, (3) one mile north-west of Aravali and Nirukhe, (4) Mangaon-Akeri Road and Vengurla-Belgaum Road, (5) half a mile north-west of Banda, (6) Vapholi, (7) north of Kalne-Mazgaon and Padve, (8) west of Vagda, (9) Kankavli-Harkul Road, (10) one mile west of Kasal bridge, and (11) Sawantwadi-Aronda Road.

Picrite which is noticed on the Danoli-Banda Road is coarse-grained and holo-crystalline, composed largely of pyroxene olivine. Chromite-bearing serpentine rocks are noticed near Kankavli and Vagda exposure is composed of two ridges separated by a patch of cultivation. These serpentines are usually altered to laterite. The chromite ore bodies occur as irregular lenses or small veins in the

serpentine. An extensive outcrop of an irregular intrusive mass of olivine-norite is noticed in the hills near Vagheri, five miles north-east of Vengurla.

CHAPTER 1.
—
Physical Features.

GEOLOGY.
Kaladgi Series.

The Kaladgi Series.—Rocks of the Kaladgi Series are noticed in the southern portions of the district and are represented by conglomerates, quartzites, sandstones and shales. The Kaladgis appear to have covered large areas in the past and suffered immense denudation long before the outpouring of the Deccan lava flows. They now form numerous detached inliers, separated from one another by the overlying beds of the Deccan trap and laterite. The most important of the inliers, covering more than 100 square miles, occurs near Phonda, exposed in a chain of hills at the base of the Phonda and Shivgad passes, extending beyond Lora and Kusli. The rocks generally have gentle dips to the S. S. E. A similar inlier is also seen near Salva and Kokesra including the isolated hills near Kasarda, Nathaoda and Wagh. Thin bedded, ripple-marked, sandstones occur at the base and are overlain by quartzites and coarse friable sandstones. Extensive development of dark-grey to black shale is also noticed in the area, the rocks generally dipping 7 to 10 degrees to the west. A few small isolated inliers are noticed further north of the Salva inliers on the northern and southern banks of the Sukh river, as at Naola, Sangalwadi, Edgaon, and near Kusur along the northern bank and near Sherpe, Edgaon, Napne, Naida, Ozar and Hijda along the southern bank. The quartzites here are white, red or brown in colour, and dip 45° N. N. W., resting on the chlorite-schists. The more important exposures of Kaladgi rocks further south are at Math, Budhavla, Trimbak, Shravan, Vaeran, Masdu, Golvan, Chaphekhol and Salel, where they rest unconformably on Dharwar schists. The quartzites are white, pink and red-brown in colour and are hard and compact in texture. The conglomerates carry pebbles of colourless, milky and smoky quartz and quartzite, with small fragments of pink feldspar, the cement being generally siliceous. Microcline, biotite, tourmaline, zircon, rutile, epidote, apatite, garnet and anatase are some of the common accessory minerals.

The Kaladgi rocks, in general, are well bedded, the thickness of individual beds of coarser arenaceous types varying between 2 and 15 feet, and of the silts and clays being from 2″ to 3″ thick. False bedding and symmetrical sharp ripple marks occur in several sandstones and quartzites near Sherpewadi, while what appears to be rain prints, are seen in the sandstone near Napne. The shales are of various colours, black, yellow-green and red-brown varieties being common. Fine-grained, compact and grey limestones are noticed occurring as sporadic boulders in the shales near Kasarda.

Infra-trappean beds.

The infra-trappean (?) beds.—Deccan trap generally rests on some Archaean schists or gneisses in some places or on Kaladgi sandstones and quartzites in others. But beds of loose water-worn pebbles intervening between the trap flows and the Archaean rocks are noticed at a few localities and are supposed to be infra-trappean beds. They crop out as narrow discontinuous bands fringing the

CHAPTER 1.
—
Physical Features.
GEOLOGY.
Infra-trappean (?) beds.

Deccan traps and are traceable for about four miles along the base of the Deccan trap between Nagwa and Sakedi. Two isolated patches of similar beds occur two miles north of Kankavli and three miles south-west of Nagwa. Both the outcrops occur at the same altitude of about 170 feet from the mean sea level. Similar pre-trapean formation is noticed almost at the same altitude in the hill, south-east of Kasal and along the north-western flank of the hill, east of Ovalia.

The beds, in general, appear to be nearly horizontal. The thickness of the bed near Sakedi is about 20 feet, while at Nagwa, it is only 10 feet. The pebbles are made up chiefly of sub-angular to rounded quartz and rarely of microcline.

Deccan trap.

Deccan trap.—Towards the end of the createceous period, there was intensive volcanism in the Deccan plateau, as seen now by the enormous thickness of nearly horizontal lava flows known as "Deccan Trap", which flooded the country occupied by Dharwar and Kaladgi rocks. Deccan trap forms a very extensive formation covering the entire northern portion and parts of the southern portion of the district. However, the greater part of the exposed trap belongs to the lowest flows, the surface of which is generally covered by thick beds of laterite. Numerous bold scarps are carved out in several of the thick lava flows due to the prolonged action of rivers. Some of the outstanding scarps are noticed along the Amba Pass, Amboli Pass and the Phonda Pass. These and other scarps constitute the spurs of the main Sahyadrian range. Each spur consists of several lava flows of different thickness and each lava bed could be easily demarcated even from a distance by their characteristic vegetation or lack of it.

Many mural precipices of hard, compact, columnar basalts are noticed near Prangad, where three distinct and conspicuous flows form cliff-like scarp, about five to six hundred feet in height. Another prominent double mural scarp of much beauty, made up of two flows, is noticed north of Amboli Pass. The spur on which the remarkable hill forts of Manohar and Mansantosh stand is capped by an extensive basaltic flow showing very fine mural scarps. Another prominent hill on which the famous hill fort Rangna is situated, shows seven different flows.

Recently, as many as eight flows, separated by seven red bole beds have been distinguished near the Phonda Pass. The rocks, as a rule, have a porphyritic texture with a fine grained aphanitic matrix. The different units of flows are represented by: (1) coarse-grained massive basalts characterised by spheroidal weathering or development of columnar joints, (2) amygdaloidal basalt with zeolites, (3) agglomerates and (4) breccias. The rocks are occasionally scoriaceous and amygdular and the cavities are usually lined with any one of the following minerals: dark-green chlorophaeite, haulandite, stibite, opal, agate and crypto-crystalline quartz. Trap dykes have intruded the several lava flows in a few places, near Sawantwadi, Kasai and Maneri.

CHAPTER 1.
Physical Features.
GEOLOGY.
Cuddalore Series.

Cuddalore Series (?).—A few small patches of Tertiary sediments appear to rest on the denuded surface of the Deccan trap at Ratnagiri. They consist of white and blue clays carrying fossil plant material and a few thin carbonaceous seams. They are supposed to be the northern extensions of the Cuddalore Series extending from Travancore and fringing the coast as far north as Ratnagiri. The fossils are very imperfectly preserved and study on these Tertiary formations is yet awaited.

Laterite.

Laterite.—Extensive spreads of Laterite are noticed throughout the district. They are considered to be the nature of the 'high level' laterite and not of detrital origin as was once supposed. They generally form flat plateaus with an elevation between two and three hundred feet. They make the country monotonous with sheets of slag-like laterite, without vegetation except scanty grass and a few stunted trees. It will be convenient to treat the laterite formation of the district in two sections: (1) Harnai-Ratnagiri-Khed-Devrukh section in the north and (2) Ratnagiri-Vengurla section in the south.

A wall-like scarp of huge laterite plateau with an elevation of about 700 feet above the mean sea level, is noticed between the Harnai Fort and the sea. The laterite appears to be distinctly bauxitic at places. The texture of the rock is peculiar, in that it is mottled with red and white in irregular veined patches. The upper limit of laterite appears to be near about 700 feet in the vicinity of Harnai. However, the laterite near Khed and particularly between Khed and Chiplun occurs at a much higher level. The laterite at Ratnagiri occurs at an elevation of 200 to 400 feet and is well seen near the Palace of the late King Thibaw of Burmah. Good exposures of primary laterite are noticed along the coast from Harnai to Dabhol and Ratnagiri. Extensive development is also noticed in the high ridges forming the parts of the Western *ghats* along the western-most margin of the district. Thick spread of lateritic soil is common near Sangameshwar, while detrital laterite is noticed in the open plains near Devrukh.

In the southern section, the first place is at Vijayadurg Fort which is built on a small laterite peninsula, not more than 90 feet in height. Excellent sections of tubular laterite scarp are noticed within the Fort. A thin formation of laterite-conglomerates with the bauxitic nodules is fouund on the plateau top. The high ground south of the Vijayadurg Fort, 100 feet above sea level, is capped by laterite. The laterite of Vijayadurg, in general, is more ferruginous and contains trifling seggregations of bauxitic nodules. White lithomarge found in the neighbourhood is very conspicuous. The laterite of Deogad, in general, is similar to the laterite of Vijayadurg. Here, the masses of cream-coloured bauxite are found in loose blocks at the top of the toe of the scarp near the customs house. A gradation of the lithomargic laterite to the deeply kaolinised trap is noticed in the laterite section within the Fort. The laterite section near Malvan is interesting. The laterite caps the quartzites and a few sections show a regular gradation from quartzites to laterite. The next section

CHAPTER 1. — Physical Features. GEOLOGY. Cuddalore series.

of importance is the plateau near Vengurla, where the laterite caps the granite-gneiss. Laterite capping is more conspicuous towards east of Vengurla. It is also seen to cover the granitic country between Vengurla and Phonda and in the vicinity of the Gad river. Thick spreads of laterite are also seen near Aros, Satarda, Ajgaon extending further south in the Portuguese occupied territory.

Recent Deposits.

Recent deposits.—Two kinds of alluvial deposits, *viz.*, marine alluvium and the river alluvium, are generally noticed in the district, but neither is of any extent or importance. To the marine alluvium, belong the recent shell-beds formed due to the consolidation of broken shells and sands. They are noticed at some distance above the high-tide level along the creek north of Malvan and at Deogad. The beds show a slight westerly dip. The sand spits, by which the mouths of the Kudal and Ashamat rivers show considerable bent towards south, must all be reckoned as marine alluvium and are supposed to be due to the prevailing northerly coast currents. The river alluvia are limited to the lower reaches of the several creeks, and are almost entirely obscured by wet cultivation. The hillocks of brown-sand along the coast near Malvan and Deogad cover the raised beds of sea-alluvium and the various patches of low-level laterites along the coast.

The soils depend almost on the character of the rock by whose decomposition they have been formed. Soils from the Deccan trap are generally grey to light-brown and deep-red in colour. The Kaladgi quartzites and shales give rise to sandy soils and clays, respectively. The laterite soil is typical red in colour and is very common along the coast throughout the district.

Economic Geology Bauxite..

Amboli-ghat deposits.—Two parallel ridges, situated at the tri-junction of Belgaum, Kolhapur and Sawantwadi contain bauxite associated with laterite which varies from 50-100 feet in thickness. The slopes of the ridges are sometimes strewn with float ore. Two important float ore deposits are confined to the north and north-west of the western ridge, the average thickness being 2 feet. The western ridge is capped by a more massive bauxite. The laterite on both the ridges in general, is aluminous, with lens-shaped patches of grey bauxite of good quality. The massive cliff of the western ridge shows several such patches along the length of the ridge. It is estimated that about 40,00,000 tons of bauxite will be available in the western ridge and about 9,80,000 tons in the eastern ridge. The float-ore may be of the order of 2,00,000 tons. The analysis of samples gave the following range in composition :—

	Per cent.
SiO_2	0·24-11·00
Al_2O_3	48·99-62·18
Fe_2O_3	3·27-13·17
MgO	*trace.*
CaO	*trace.*
TiO_2	6·73-8·42

The extensive spread of laterite in the lowlands of the Ratnagiri district is in general, devoid of bauxite. The laterite, however, appears bauxitic at a few places along the coast near Harnai, Vijayadurg and Deogad. At Harnai, a wall-like scrap of the laterite shows concentrations of white gibbsitic matter. The quantity is considerable, and being so close to the sea, has possibilities of exploitation in the near future. The whitish portion of the laterite on chemical analysis, gave the following result :—

	Per cent.
SiO_2	3·66
TiO_2	2·56
Al_2O_3	56·88
Fe_2O_3	5·52
MgO	0·44
Loss	30·49

Building Stones.

The district is well endowed with various kinds of rock suitable for building construction. These comprise granite-gneiss, basic dykes, quartzites, Deccan trap and laterite. Being very hard, the granite-gneiss is only locally worked near Sawantwadi, Banda, Kadwal, and Avlegaon. Basic dykes are locally quarried for building purposes and also as a road metal near Banda, Dagve, Sawantwadi and Kankavli. Hard, compact, fine to medium-grained Kaladgi sandstones and quartzites are quarried for dimension blocks near Phonda, Golvan, Katta, Trimbak, Shravan, Achra and Math. Deccan trap covers a large portion of the district and can be easily quarried. It is therefore, quarried both for dimension blocks and as a road metal near Ratnagiri, Chiplun, Kharepatan, Rajapur, Talera, Nagwa, Tarndala, Januali and along the Kasal-Kankavli road. Laterite has a peculiar property of being soft when newly quarried and becoming hard and compact on exposure to the air. This facilitates the easy quarrying and is therefore worked out locally for dimension blocks all along the coastal tract in the district.

Clays.

There are no known good deposits of China clay in the district. However, a few small pockets of China clay, formed due to the decomposition of the feldspars in the granite, are noticed in the gneissic country. One such small occurrence is to the south of Kumbharmath east of the Malvan port. The kaolin is of good quality and is slightly plastic. It does not fuse at 1,200° C and burns white.

Deposits of red, plastic, lime free, lateritic clay suitable for the manufacture of cheap and glazed-wares and roofing tiles are noticed

CHAPTER 1. — Physical Features. GEOLOGY. Economic Geology. *Clays.*

on banks of a *nala* below an overburden of 5 to 12 feet north of Jalgaon, in the Dapoli taluka. The sample analysis is as follows :—

	Per cent.
SiO_2	24·24
Al_2O_3	22·24
Fe_2O_3	40·15
CaO	0·05
MgO	*Trace*
Loss	13·07

Chromite.

Chromite deposits of the district are located in the valley of the Gad river, one mile north-north-east of Kankavli and near Vagda. The ore body is associated with an intrusive body of serpentine intersecting the foliation of Pre-Cambrian gneisses and schists. It is about half a mile long and varies from six to thirty feet in width. The ore is in the form of grains disseminated in serpentine and chlorite. The reserves of chromite ore are estimated at 50,000 tons in the Kankavli deposit and about 17,000 tons in the three small loads near Vagda. Chemical analysis of a few samples of the ore gave the following results :—

	Kankavli.		Vagda.	
	Per cent.		Per cent.	
	(i)	(ii)	(i)	(ii)
SiO_2	7·36	9·28	4·12	0·21
Fe_2O_3	23·73	26·20	24·63	25·40
Al_2O_3	11·40	13·60	12·02	12·60
CaO	*Nil.*	*Nil.*	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
MgO	15·35	17·02	15·64	16·20
Cr_2O_3	36·49	31·63	39·30	33·43

The chromite deposits could not be marketed owing to the high iron content; eventually, with the availability of cheap electrical energy, and some suitable methods of beneficiation, these deposits may be worked at a later date, for use in chemical industries.

Feldspar.

Potash feldspar occurs as a major constituent mineral of the mica-pegmatite near Kadawal. The feldspar is quite suitable for the use in the ceramic industry and can be recovered as a by-product during mica mining.

Glass Sand.

Some of the sandstone beds of the Kaladgi Series are used in glass making and are exposed on the Sawantwadi-Vengurla road, at Maldi, Vetora and at Valaval. These sandstones which strike N.W.-S.E. dipping almost vertically towards north-east vary in thickness from 10 to 50 feet. The deposits at Valaval and Vetora are

estimated to contain roughly seven million and fourteen million tons, respectively, but the material is not likely to be of uniformly good grade.

Pinkish, soft sandstones, which can easily be crushed are noticed one mile west of Math. The rock is locally used in the manufacture of sodium silicate in a factory near Vengurla. White, sacharoidal, fine-grained, highly friable sandstones found below a thin laterite-cap near Kumbrol appear suitable for glass manufacture. Similar deposits of sand are also worked near Chendvan, Tendoli, Dabholi, Achra and Mithbav. The analysis of few samples from above localities gave the following results :—

Locality.	SiO_2 per cent.	Fe_2O_3 per cent.
1. Mile 74, Vengurla-Sawantwadi Road	97·54	0·47
2. Mile 72, Vengurla-Sawantwadi Road	98·56	0·39
3. Maladi	93·48	0·28
4. Math	98·11	0·43
5. Valaval	98·40	0·19
6. Vetora	96·12	0·09

All the deposits are worked on a small scale and the material is shipped to Bombay for glass manufacture. The demand so far, has been for sand powder crushed to about 10 meshsize, and the cost per ton delivered to Bombay, works to about Rs. 30.

Ilmenite..

Beach sands containing ilmenite-sand occur sporadically along a 25-mile long coastal belt from Purangadh to Malgund and beyond, the thickness of the ilmenite-sand varying from a minute fraction of an inch to a maximum of three feet. The thickness of the coastal sand, inclusive of the sand dunes, cannot be more as the underlying laterite or trap is visible in a number of localities. The accumulation of ilmenite-sand is attributed to wave or wind sorting on the slopes of the sea shore. The reserves near Rajwade, Bhatya, Ratnagiri, Purangadh, Gaonkhadi and Malgund are supposed to be quite extensive. The TiO_2 content varies from 28 to 52 per cent. while the ilmenite content varies from 25 to 76 per cent.

The deposits of ilmenite-sand along the Ratnagiri coast do not compare in any way with the rich and extensive deposits of Travancore, though they do contain some of the important minerals such as monazite, zircon, etc., to a certain extent. However, there are a few good workable deposits which could be exploited for marketing, particularly after improving the grade of sand by processing.

CHAPTER 1.
—
Physical Features
GEOLOGY.
Economic Geology.
Iron-ore..

Two types of iron-ores are noticed in the southern part of the district, *viz.*, the banded-hematite-quartzite and the lateritic iron-ore. Small bands of banded-hematite-quartzite are noticed along the coast near Aravli, Aros. Satarda, Tiravada, Ajgaon and at Redi. At present, the ore is worked at Redi. Banded-hematite-quartzite underlying about 25 feet thick laterite, form the source of the iron-ore in the one and a half mile long, low-lying hills, facing the Arabian sea, south of Redi. The rock shows a variation in dip from N 10°E to N 30°E at 40 to 60 degrees. A number of quarries are worked to a depth of about 35 to 40 feet. The ore bodies form a series of discontinuous lenses of varying grades. Both massive and powdery ore has been found. The lenticular ore bodies show a tendency to peter out and give rise to soft powdery ore at either end, and similar powdery ore is also encountered at depth. Therefore, the available reserves of high grade ore, carrying more than 62 per cent. iron, are limited, and there is a greater proportion of the ore carrying between 58 and 60 per cent. of iron. The reserves of all grades are quite extensive.

Highly ferruginous laterite forms the lateritic iron-ore and is found at a number of places in the district near Asoli, Khanavli, Kochra, Mahapan, Pat, Parule, Dhampur, Kalse, Amberi, Danoli, Otavane, Aravali, Aros, Satarda, Tiravada and Ajgaon. A good quality laterite iron ore analyses to little above 50 per cent. Almost inexhaustible quantities of the ore will be available along the coast in the district.

Limestone.

No extensive deposit of limestone has so far been found in the district. However, boulders of light to dark and purpish-grey, massive, concretionery limestone, exhibiting a pseudo-oolitic structure, is noticed in the valley two miles north-east of Talera. The limestone is associated with the Kaladgi shales and is supposed to be of metasomatic origin. The deposit is not very extensive. This lime was used for construction of the dam at Radhanagari in the Kolhapur district.

Chemical analysis of a few samples gave the following results :—

	(I)	(II)	(III)	(IV)	(V)
	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.
SiO_2 ..	11·54	25·30	10·77	16·66	7·00
R_2O_3 ..	3·00	7·50	4·00	4·00	2·30
CaO ..	44·35	31·25	44·90	38·06	48·55
MgO ..	2·64	3·33	2·39	3·26	1·24

Manganese-ore.

Deposits of manganese-ore are reported to occur in the southern parts of the district and are occasionally worked in the Sawantwadi taluka only. Manganese occurs as irregular boulders in the laterite

or replacements of ferruginous matter in the Dharwar phyllites and quartzites. The ore, in general, is of low-grade and is noticed near Banda, Degve, Adali, Kalne, Phondye, Sasoli, Netarde, Dingne, Galel, Dongarpal, Panturli and near Talavadi. The deposits at Banda, Kalne, Sasoli, Phondye, Dingne and Galel, though not very promising, could be worked in the event of a demand or boom in the manganese market.

Mica.

A pegmatite intruding the biotite-schists and the granite-gneiss near Kadawal about 12 miles north-east of Kudal, carries mica in the form of books. The pegmatite is about 1,600 feet in length and 600 feet in width. The mica is colourless or greenish to grey in colour, occasionally stained and spotted. It is at times buckled and appears wavy. Ruby variety is also reported to have been found. Sizes 3 and 2 are common but sizes 1 and A1, though rare, are also reported to occur at depths.

Mineral Waters.

Hot springs are found in various parts of the district. They occur along a line half way between the Sahyadri hills and the sea, along the eastern margin of the coastal region. Some of the important group of springs are as follows :—

1. *Khed Springs.*—These are approachable by road from Bombay and Poona, distance being 176 miles and 104 miles, respectively. The springs give plenty of bubbles of carbon-di-oxide and hydrogen sulphide. The rate of flow is about 140 gallons per hour. The temperature is about 35·5°C. The radons m.Mc. per litre is almost nil. The water is reputed to cure skin diseases and rheumatic complaints.

2. *Unhala Springs.*—These are situated south of Unhala village in a marshy land, at a distance of about 12 miles from Dabhol wharf. The springs yield plenty of bubbles of hydrogen sulphide and carbon-di-oxide. The rate of flow is about 1,500 gallons per hour. The temperature is 69°C and radons m.Mc. per litre is 0·806. The springs are reputed to cure skin diseases and rheumatic complaints. The water is reported to be a good appetiser. It contains chloride and the water is saline.

3. *Aravali Springs.*—These are situated south of the Gad river bridge in the village Aravali about 20 miles from Chiplun. The springs give out plenty of bubbles of carbon-di-oxide and hydrogen sulphide. The rate of flow is about 916 gallons per hour. The temperature is 40°C and the radon content m.Mc. per litre is nil. The springs are also reputed to cure skin diseases.

4. *Tural Spring.*—This group of springs is situated to the east of the road between Chiplun and Sangameshwar. It gives out plenty of bubbles of carbon-di-oxide and hydrogen sulphide. The rate of flow is about 1,000 gallons per hour. The temperature is about 61°C. The radon content m.Mc. per litre, is nil and the water is reputed to cure skin diseases.

CHAPTER 1.
Physical Features.
GEOLOGY.
Economic Geology.
Mineral Waters.

5. *Rajwadi Spring*.—It is situated to the south of Rajwadi village, about a mile east of Chiplun-Sangameshwar road and can be reached from Karad Station via Chiplun. The spring gives out plenty of bubbles of carbon-di-oxide and hydrogen sulphide. The rate of flow is 1,870 gallons per hour. The temperature is, 54°C. The spring is also reputed to cure skin diseases and rheumatic complaints and also as a good appetiser.

6. *Sangameshwar Spring*.—Occurs in the bed of the Shastri river about 1½ miles from Sangameshwar town and lies submerged throughout the year. The spring gives plenty of bubbles of carbon-di-oxide. The temperature varies from 50°C to 60°C, and is known to cure skin diseases.

7. *Rajapur Springs*.—Occur on the southern bank of the tidal river in the Unhala village near Rajapur. The temperature is about 42°C and is known to cure skin diseases and rheumatic complaints.

Ochres.

Small deposits of various coloured earths, viz., yellow, red, black, brown, chocolate, green and *rakhi*, are reported to occur near Degwe, Dongarpal, Amboli, Morgaon, Sarambale, Sasoli, Phondye, Mandkol, Ralkot, Katta, Golvan, Pat, Parule and a number of other places in the hills along the coast between Malvan and Vengurla. The ochres are shipped to Bombay for the manufacture of mineral pigments.

Salt.

Salt is recovered by the direct solar evaporation of sea water along the Ratnagiri coast near Ratnagiri, Malvan, Vengurla and Shiroda. The annual total production is about 45,000 Bengali maunds. The major portion, however, is produced near Shiroda which is of the odrer of 40,000 Bengali maunds, annually.

Steatite.

Small bands of dark grey-grained, soft steatite are noticed near Asgani about ten miles east of Malvan, near Akheri, Jholamba and in the hills between Kumbrol and Pauturli. They are worked out locally for making utensils, etc., but are not likely to support a flourishing industry.

Water-supply.

As regards the water supply, the district may be broadly divided lengthwise into five belts: (1) the sea-coast, (2) an inland belt of laterite, eight or ten miles broad, (3) a ten-mile belt of mixed laterite and basalt, (4) a belt of basalt, six to eight miles wide and (5) the foot of the Sahyadri hills.

The villages along the sea coast are supplied with drinking water from wells generally fed by sea filtering through the sand. The supply is abundant, almost every house in the village having its own well. The laterite belt is supplied with drinking water partly from wells and partly form the hills side springs. The third, laterite belt is supplied with drinking water from wells fed by running springs in a few cases. The supply is both abundant and wholesome. In the basalt bed the water supply is scanty and bad. The villages in the

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.
GEOLOGY.
Economic Geology.
Water-supply.

fifth belt, immediately at the foot of the Sahyadri hills have in many places good wells. However, the manner of occurrence of underground water changes from place to place owing to the diversified character of the water bearing formation and variations in the geological structure. The metamorphic rocks hold very little underground water and the villages situated on these rocks have only a few wells and have to depend for drinking water on springs from faces of the overhanging hills of the Sahyadris. The Kaladgi rocks crop out as isolated patches surrounded by trap and laterite. The rocks which are well cemented are useless as water containers but a few sands and silts which have escaped cementation, serve as reservoirs of underground water.

CLIMATE.*
Season.

CLIMATE*.—The climate of the district though moist is generally healthy. The rainfall is plentiful and regular. The year may be divided into four seasons, the summer season from March to May, the south-west monsoon season from June to September, the post-monsoon season from October to November and the winter season from December to February.

Rainfall.

Records of rainfall in the district, for about 80 years are available for 18 rain-gauge stations. Tables No. 1 and 2 give the rainfall data for the individual stations and for the district as a whole and frequency of annual rainfall. The Amboli station which is at the foot of the Western Ghats gets a rainfall nearly twice as much as at some other stations in the district. As this rainfall is not quite representative of the conditions prevailing in the district as a whole except the areas at the foot of the ghats, the data of this station is not included for calculating the district averages. The monsoon bursts over the district generally by the beginning of June and the rains continue with little intermission till about the middle of October. The average annual rainfall for the district as a whole is 3,188 mm. (125·52"). The rainfall increases rapidly from the coast towards the Western Ghats on the eastern border of the district. In and near the Ghats rainfall is very heavy. Amboli gets annually on an average 7,446 mm. (293·1") of rain. The coastal stations of Malvan and Deogad get annually 2,155 and 2,247 mm. (84·9" and 88·5") of rain, respectively. Practically the entire annual rainfall occurs during the months from June to October. July is the month with highest rainfall when about one-third of the annual rainfall is received. The variation from year to year in the rainfall is not large. During the 50 year period from 1901 to 1950, the year 1931 was one with the heaviest rainfall amounting to 143 per cent. of the normal. Rainfall amounting to only 58 per cent. of the normal occurred in 1941, the year with the lowest rainfall. During the fifty year period there were six years with less than 80 per cent. of rainfall, and none of them were consecutive. Considering individual stations, Malvan, Dapoli and Mandangad had one occasion each of two consecutive years of low rainfall. Guhagar had four consecutive years, from 1904

* This Section on "Climate" was supplied by the Meteorological Department of the Government of India, Poona.

CHAPTER I.
—
Physical Features.
CLIMATE.
Rainfall.

to 1907, when rainfall was less than 80 per cent. of the normal. It will be seen from Table No. 2 that in 41 out of 50 years, the rainfall in the district was between 2,600 and 3,800 mm.

On an average for 101 days in the year the district gets 2·5 mm. (10 cents) or more of rain. As in the case of the amount of rainfall the number of rainy days is less near the coast than in the eastern portion of the district near the Ghats.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours which occurred at any station in the district, was 535·4 mm. (21·08″) at Dapoli on June 3, 1882.

Temperature.

Meteorological data are available for four stations in the district, viz., Harnai, Ratnagiri, Deogad and Vengurla. Being a coastal district the variation of temperature during the day and through the seasons is not large.

In the hot season temperature rises slowly from March, and May is the hottest month. With the onset of the monsoon, temperature drops by three to four degrees. Day temperatures during the monsoon are lower than those in the cold season. In the post monsoon months of October and November, day temperatures increase and days in November are as hot as in May. Night temperatures are the lowest in January. Areas within 20 to 25 kilometres of the coast are the most pleasant particularly in the hot months with the sea breeze blowing, nearly throughout the day. Further inland during the hot months both days and nights can be oppressive and more so in the tract at the foot of the Western Ghats. Along the coast the maximum temperature rarely goes beyond 38°C (100·4°F) but in the interior may reach 40° or 41°C (104°0 or 106°0 F).

Humidity.

Owing to the proximity of the sea, the district is on the whole very humid. Even during the winter and summer the relative humidity seldom goes below 50 per cent.

Cloudiness.

During the monsoon, skies are heavily clouded to overcast. But in the rest of the year skies are clear or very lightly clouded.

Winds.

Winds are very strong and are mainly westerly or south westerly during the monsoon. In the rest of the year winds blow from directions between north and east in the mornings and between west and north-west in the afternoons.

Special weather phenomena.

During the pre and post monsoon months the district experiences very strong winds sometimes reaching gale force particularly near the coast and heavy rain in association with cyclonic storms which develop in the Arabian Sea and move in close proximity to the coast. Thunderstorms are common in the post monsoon months and the latter part of the hot season.

Tables No. 3, 4 and 5 give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and frequency of special weather phenomena respectively for Ratnagiri. (The meteorological conditions at Harnai, Deogad and Vengurla are not appreciably different from those at Ratnagiri. The data for Ratnagiri only has therefore been included.)

TABLES

of

RAINFALL, HUMIDITY AND SPECIAL WEATHER PHENOMENA.

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.

CLIMATE.
Rainfall.

TABLE 1.

NORMAL AND EXTREMES OF RAINFALL (1950–

Station.	Number of years.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June.	July.	August
Ratnagiri ..	50	(a) 1.8	1.9	0.3	8.6	30.7	769.9	849.9	483.1
		(b) 0.1	0.1	0.0	0.3	1.7	20.4	26 2	23.1
Vengurla .	50	(a) 1.3	0.5	1 0	8.6	57.1	830.2	910.6	457.7
		(b) 0.1	0.1	0.0	0.5	2.1	21.3	25.9	23.1
Malvan ..	50	(a) 1.0	0.5	1.0	8.1	43.9	602 2	760.5	355.0
		(b) 0.1	0.0	0.1	0.4	1.8	10.4	23.7	19.9
Deogad ..	50	(a) 2.0	1.3	0.5	0.3	40.1	679.7	702.1	384.8
		(b) 0.2	0.0	0.0	0.3	2.2	20.1	25.2	22.0
Rajapur ..	50	(a) 1.8	0.3	0.3	5.0	31.2	806.2	1,173.2	684.7
		(b) 0.1	0.0	0.0	0.4	1.6	20.6	28.0	26.1
Deorukh ..	50	(a) 2.9	0.3	2.9	11.7	35.6	770.0	1,401.1	810.0
		(b) 0.2	0.0	0.2	0.8	2.2	20.7	28.8	27.0
Chiplun ..	50	(a) 2 5	0.8	2.8	10.4	35.8	733.3	1,340.4	745.5
		(b) 0.2	0.0	0.2	0.7	1.9	19.8	28.3	26.9
Guhagar ..	50	(a) 1.3	0.8	0.0	3.8	29.6	727.2	875.8	460.9
		(b) 0.2	0.0	0.0	0.3	1.4	19.5	26 2	23.0
Khed ..	50	(a) 1.5	1.0	0.5	4.3	25.7	750.1	1,316 7	703.1
		(b) 0.2	0.1	0.1	0.8	1.4	19.0	28.7	26.3
Dapoli ..	50	(a) 2.3	1.0	0.5	5.6	27.8	803.4	1,247.1	715.8
		(b) 0.2	0.1	0 0	0.4	1.4	21.0	28 8	26.0
Mandangad ..	50	(a) 2.5	0.5	1.3	5.6	25.4	810.0	1,522.2	897.6
		(b) 0.1	0 1	0.1	0.3	1.1	19.7	29.3	27.9
Lanje ..	12	(a) 2.8	0.0	1.5	14.7	48.8	752.0	1,470.9	926.4
		(b) 0.1	0.0	0.1	1.3	2.8	19.3	27.3	24.9
Kankavli ..	12	(a) 0.0	0.0	6.6	7.1	65.5	789.9	1,569.1	961.6
		(b) 0 0	0.0	0.2	0.3	3.8	19.7	27.5	24.5
Sawantwadi .	50	(a) 2.3	0.3	1.0	9.1	57.1	981.5	1,370.1	759.2
		(b) 0 2	0.0	0.1	0.6	2.4	22.4	28.0	26.4
Harnai .	15	(a) 1.8	0.0	0.0	12.5	48.3	605.3	956.6	537.2
		(b) 9.9	0.0	0.0	0.7	2.8	18.5	27.5	22.5
Kudal ..	50	(a) 1.0	0.5	1.0	7.1	47.0	875.0	1,102.4	681.9
		(b) 0.1	0.0	0.0	0.5	1.9	21.6	28.1	24.8
Banda ..	50	(a) 1.0	0.5	1.0	9.4	56.4	957.1	1,304.9	690.6
		(b) 0.2	0.1	0.2	0.8	2.5	22.4	29.0	26 3
Ratnagiri (District).		(a) 1.7	0.5	1.3	7.9	41.5	784.3	1,164.5	655.8
		(b) 0.1	0.0	0.1	0.5	2.1	20.4	27.6	24.8
Amboli ..	16	(a) 13.5	0.0	6.8	33.3	84.3	1,607.8	2,774.7	1,886.0
		(b) 0.3	0.0	0.3	1.6	5.9	24.3	30.6	29.9

(a) Normal rainfall in mm.
(b) Average number of rainy days
*Based on all available data
**Years given in brackets

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.

CLIMATE.
Rainfall.

I.

IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

51).

Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.	Highest Annual rainfall as per-cent. of normal and year.	Lowest Annual rainfall as per-cent of normal and year.	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours. Amount (mm.).	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours. Date.
338.3	103.0	35.3	4.3	2,017.1	151 (1948)	54 (1941)	350 4	1951 June 12.
16.5	5.2	1.6	0.3	94.5				
363.4	98.0	34.3	4.3	2,671.0	136 (1948)	51 (1905)	315.4	1901 June 10.
14.6	5.6	2.0	0.3	90.6				
241.8	22.8	33.0	4.8	2,154.7	104 (1910)	50 (1905)	370.1	1902 July 3.
13.2	4.4	1.8	0.3	85.1				
901.7	91.9	31.7	4.3	3,247.9	164 (1948)	63 (1940)	310.7	1950 June 26.
16.0	5.8	1.7	0.3	92.3				
367.8	122.7	36.3	3.6	3,213.2	151 (1931)	63 (1905)	344 2	1931 July 13.
16.2	6.3	1.0	0.3	102.0				
427.0	161.8	41.1	0.3	3,670.5	153 (1931)	50 (1905)	332.7	1904 July 12.
17 6	8.0	2.1	0.4	108 2				
421.9	100.5	37.0	4.8	3,497.3	143 (1931)	64 (1905)	533.4	1882 June 4
18.1	7.6	2.1	0.3	106.6				
331.5	80.7	22.7	8.8	2,530.7	130 (1940)	59 (1920)	274.8	1930 June 22.
15 2	4.5	1.2	0.3	92.4				
339.6	142.7	33.8	3.8	3,372.3	155 (1931)	61 (1918)	308.3	1904 July 12.
17.7	6.7	1.6	0.2	103 3				
304.0	92.7	24.4	2.5	3,267.2	143 (1931)	47 (1941)	535.4	1882 June 3.
16.8	4.7	1.1	0.3	101.7				
430 2	122.2	25.1	5.3	3,848.0	143 (1931)	64 (1918)	300.2	1915 June 26.
17.8	5.5	1.3	0.2	103.4				
517.8	216.7	41.1	4.6	3,898.2	134 (1955)	74 (1952)	254.5	1953 July 1.
16.6	9.0	1.7	0.3	103.4				
427.0	284.3	43 3	5.3	4,000.2	110 (1957)	80 (1946)	208.5	1952 July 29.
16 9	10.7	1.4	0.2	105.2				
344 2	177 0	51.1	5.8	3,758.9	130 (1931)	56 (1941)	300.0	1888 June 17.
17.2	8.5	2.6	0 3	109.6				
359 2	95.5	30 0	1.5	2,647.9	146 (1953)	81 (1945)	157.0	1956 May 3.
15.8	5 9	1.6	0.1	93.4				
289.6	139.8	40.1	0.6	3,082.0	198 (1916)	51 (1908)	274.8	1831 July 20.
15.6	6.9	2.2	0.4	102.9				
388 8	173.7	48.3	5.3	3,571 3	161 (1931)	56 (1941)	363.0	1931 July 26.
17.0	8.5	2.2	0.4	110.3				
385.6	183.0	35.9	4.5	3,185 2	143 (1931)	68 (1941)		
16 8	6.6	1.8	0.3	100·6				
808.4	186.7	38.1	13.7	7,445.7	119 (1939)	67 (1925)	426 9	1939 July 11.
22.1	9.4	3.1	0.3	124.8				

(days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).
upto 1957.

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.

CLIMATE.
Rainfall.

TABLE 2.

(1901-1950)

FREQUENCY OF ANNUAL RAINFALL IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Range in mm.	No. of years.	Range in mm.	No. of years.
1801—2000	2	3201—3400 ..	10
2001—2200	1	3401—3600 ..	5
2201—2400	2	3601—3800 ..	5
2401—2600	2	3801—4000 ..	0
2601—2800	5	4001—4200 ..	1
2801—3000	8	4201—4400 ..	0
3001—3200	8	4401—4600 ..	1

TABLE 3.

Temperature and Humidity.

MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Month	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature.	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature.	Highest Maximum ever recorded.		Lowest Minimum ever recorded.		Relative Humidity.	
							0830* per cent.	1730* per cent.
	°C	°C	°C	Date	°C	Date		
January ..	30.3	19.5	36.7	1912, Jan. 27	12 2	1935 Jan. 17	67	69
February ..	29.8	19 8	38.3	1920 Feb. 29	13.3	1901 Feb. 13	61	65
March ..	30.6	22.4	38.9	1922 Mar. 9	16.1	1910 Mar. 4	68	71
April ..	31 6	25.0	36.1	1938 Apr. 2	16.1	1905 Apr. 1	70	75
May ..	32.3	26.6	37.8	1883 Mar. 31	21.7	1913 May 30	70	74
June ..	30.3	25.1	35.0	1957 Jun. 12	19.4	1939 Jun. 17	81	83
July ..	28.7	24.4	32.8	1900 Jul. 5	20.6	1919 Jul. 2	84	98
August ..	28.6	24 2	31.1	1930 Aug. 9	21.1	1931 Aug. 6	84	87
September ..	28.8	23.7	34.4	1896 Sep. 30	20.6	1898 Sep. 12	82	85
October ..	31.2	23.6	37.2	1888 Oct. 10	17.8	1903 Oct. 30	73	78
November ..	32.6	21.7	37.2	1918 Nov. 9	15.6	1955 Nov. 13	55	68
December ..	31.4	20 1	36.1	1893 Dec. 22	14.4	1954 Dec. 30	50	63
Annual ..	30.5	23.0	..	....	..	...	70	75

*Hours I. S. T.

TABLE 4.

Winds.

MEAN WIND SPEED IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
9 8	10.5	10.8	11.1	11.9	12.2	14.5	12.2	8.5	8.2	8.9	8.7	10.7

TABLE 5.

THUNDER, HAIL, DUST-STORM, SQUALL AND FOG IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Mean number of days with.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
Thunder	0	0	0	0	0.5	1.2	0.1	0	0.4	1.8	0.7	0	4.7
Hail ..	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.1
Dust-Storm..	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Squall ..	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fog ..	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Natural Resources.
FORESTS.

FORESTS.—The district of Ratnagiri is formed by a narrow belt of low land, lying between the Indian Ocean and the Sahyadri hills, with a total length of about 300 miles and a breadth of thirty to forty-five miles. Though hilly and rugged as a whole, the district presents in different parts many characteristic features. Near the Sahyadri hills the valleys are more open and the hills less rugged than towards the centre of the district, which is little less than a mass of wild rugged hills. These again, towards the coast, fall into nearly level plateaus in great part made barren by a capping of laterite rock, cleft by deep narrow steep-sided valleys and ravines, through which rivers and streams find their way from the Sahyadri hills to the sea.

The forest areas in the district except in Dapoli, Sawantwadi and Kudal talukas are in charge of the Revenue department. The talukawise distribution of forest areas in the district is as below :—

Taluka.	Forest area in charge of Forest Department.		Forest areas in charge of Revenue Deartment. sq. miles.
	Reserved. sq. miles.	Protected. sq. miles.	
Dapoli	4	....	....
Mandangad	....	....	0.05
Lanja	....	....	0.00
Devgad	....	....	0.02
Devrukh	....	....	
Sangameshwar	....	....	0.55
Chiplun	....	....	0.92
Malvan	....	....	1.00
Khed	....	....	8.91
Ratnagiri	....	....	0.03
Sawantwadi	40.0	8.2	....
Kudal	14.0	0.1	....

CHAPTER 1.
—
Natural Resources.
FORESTS.

About 1829, on the suggestions of the Collector, Mr. Dunlop, the forests were for the most part placed at the disposal of the people. The grant was considered as a charter for unlicensed, unlimited and unguarded wood cutting. Untold quantities of Ratnagiri wood were year after year, sent to Bombay. After the proclamation, the people sold the standing timber as fast as they could find buyers. This resulted in the denudation of private forests and at present most of the country is void of forest growth.

The only forests in charge of the Forest department, are in Dapoli, Sawantwadi and Kudal talukas.

Dapoli Taluka.—The forest area in charge of the Forest department is only four square miles. Teak and other moist deciduous species grow in this area. It has been included in the present Janjira Sub-Division. The teak that is available in this area is of a superior quality.

Sawantwadi and Kudal Talukas.—The terrain of the ex-Sawantwadi State, i.e., Sawantwadi and Kudal is a typical example of the Konkan tract of which it forms the southern part. Its entire bulk lies to the west of the main ridge line of the Sahyadris except the plateau region which is wedged in between the Belgaum and Kolhapur district borders. The tract thus lies within the narrow physical limits between Sahyadri heights reaching 3,200′ above the mean sea level down to elevations approaching sea level. The average width of the tract is 20 miles only and the whole tract is entirely rugged and hilly with precipitous drops in places.

The forests of the former Sawantwadi State mainly fall into two distinct climatic formations: (1) Bombay sub-tropical ever-green forests and (2) South Indian tropical moist deciduous forests. The latter is composed of two edaphic variations: (i) forests having laterite red soil and (ii) forests with sandy loams. The main species on the plateau of the top canopy is *anjani* (*Memecylon edule*) which associates in order of incidence with *hirda* (*Terminalia Chebula*), *amberi* (*Nothopegia colebrookiana*), *amba* (*Mangifera indica*), *shendri* (*Mallotus philippinensis*), *asena* (*Bridelia retusa*), *landi* (*Legerstroemia parviflora*), *bibi* (*Holigarna arnottiana*), *Callicarpa* species and *Jambhul* (*Eugenia jambolana*), which is rather sparse. The middle canopy is made up of *bhoma* (*Glochidion lanceolarium*), *parjambhul* (*Olea dioica*), *dinda* (*leea macrophylla*), *tamalpatra* (*Cinnamomum tamala*), *pandhari* (*Murraya exotica*), *makad limbu* (*Atlantia monophylla*), *kutkuta* (*Connarus wightii*), *narkya* (*Mappia foetida*), *bhandira* (*Clerondandron infortunatum*), *tupa* (*Canthium umballatum*), *dikemali* (*Gardenia lucida*), *karavti* (*Streblus asper*), *triphol* (*Zanthoxylum rhotsa*), *kalhoni* (*Hydnocarpus wightina*) and *Glycosmis pentaphylla*, *kapshi* (*Lingustrum neilgherrense*), *vanaphalli* (*Garcinia malabarica*), and *kumbhal* (*Sideroxylon tomentosum*), occur in both the upper as well as middle canopies. The undergrowth consists of both evergreen and deciduous species such as *hasoli* (*Grewia mocroces*), *wakeri* (*Wagatea*

spicata), *karvi* (*Strebilanthus callosus*), *harki* (*Rauwolfia serpentina*), *nirgud* (*Vitex negundo*), *nirgunda* (*Vitex trifolia*) and *ukshi* (*Calycopteris floribunda*). There is also some incidence of cane (*Calemus thwaitesii*) too, but not on a scale, making its exploitation worth while.

The composition on the western slopes is characterised by the rapid disappearance of *anjani* (*Memecylon edule*), as the elevation falls and increasing presence of such members in the canopy as *jambhul* (*Eugenia jambolana*), *parjambhul* (*Olea dioica*), *nana* (*Lagerstroemia lanceolata*), *ain* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *jamba* (*Xylia zylocarpa*) and *koshimb* (*Schleichera trijuga*), rather prominently making a transition from ever-green into the moist deciduous.

The most characteristic species is teak (*Tectona grandis*) which reaches luxuriant size in the sandy loams found in Mangaon and parts of Malgaon and Mazgaon rounds. In lateritic red soils, teak has reached moderate size particularly during the period of earlier plans. In both the edaphic variations, it is associated with *ain* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *kinjal* (*Terminalia paniculata*), *nana* (*Lagerstroemia lanceolata*), *siddum* (*Tatramelas nudiflora*), *Koshimb* (*Schleichera trijuga*), *kinai* (*Albizzia precera*), *sawar* (*Bombax malabaricum*), *shiras* (*Albizzia labbek*), *wavla* (*Holoptalea integrifolia*), etc., forming the top canopy. The dominant species *jamba* (*Xylia Xylocarpa*) and *koshimb* (*Schleichera trijuga*), are seen to associate teak in over-whelming preponderance in lateritic red soils and not in sandy loams formed from granite or *granitoid gneiss*. The proportion of teak in this canopy varies from region to region, between nil to almost 30 per cent. of the crop. The proportion of teak is considerable towards the northern side of the tract.

The species forming a middle storey are *bibi* (*Holigarna arnottiana*), *satwin* (*Alstonia scholarim*), *asan* (*bibla*) (*pterocarpus marsupium*), *kajara* (*Strychnes muxvomica*), *amba* (*Mangifera indica*), *phanas* (*Artocarpus integrifolia*), *shisham* (*Dalbargia latifolia*) *kokum* (*Carcinia indica*), *watumb* (*Artocarpus lakoocha*), *pangara* (*Erythrina indica*), *paneruk* (*Sterculia urens*), *kolinder* (*Sterculia guttata*), *kumbhi* (*Careya arborea*), *phanashi* (*Carallia integerrima*) *shivan* (*Gmelina arborea*), etc., *hed* (*Adina cordifolia*), and *kalamb* (*Mitragyna Parviflora*) being rather sparse.

The under growth is generally made up of the ever green shrubs, *ukshi* (*Calycopteria floribunda*), *dhaiti* (*woodfordia floribunda*), *ramoli* (*Grewia nicreces*), *kuda* (*Helarrhena antidysenterica*), *kudi* (*Wrightia tinctoria*). *bhandira* (*Clerodendron infortunatum*), *bedki* (*Gymnema sylvestra*), *toran* (*Zizyphus rugosa*), *tippan* (*Allophyllus cobbe*), *karawand* (*Carrisea carandus*), etc. *Ghaneri* (*Lantana camara*) is seen to invade western exposed forest lands due to cuttings, done for *kumri* cultivation in the past.

CHAPTER I.

Natural Resources.
FORESTS.

The forests in some parts and along the low ghat line touching the toes of Sahyadris contain species of *bamboos* main among which are *velu* (*Bambusa arundinaces*) and *chivari* (*kadhani Oxytenanthera monostigma*); *managa* (*Oxytenanthera stockeli*), being found only in *Malki* lands.

The teak areas in Kudal peta appear to have suffered serious maltreatment in the past. Even the large size trees are seen to have lost their form. The greatest damage to forests is caused along the border approaching the Goa territory as considerable amount of wanton cutting has occurred here in the past, rendering the very form of growth quite stunted and leaving the land bare in many places. Towards the east, the forests are being maintained and on the whole a major part of the forests is saved from depredations since the beginning of organised working under definite plans.

The chief consuming centres for major forest produce are Vengurla. Malvan, Ratnagiri, Shiroda, Aronda, Kankavli and Sawantwadi in Ratnagiri district and Kolhapur, Nipani, Belgaum, Gadhinglaj and Ajra outside Ratnagiri. Minor forest produce such as *shikekai*, shembi-bark, *sawar* cotton, *tamalpatra, kokam, watsol, wavding* and *hirda* are mostly exported to Bombay, *via* Vengurla harbour. The tract has a net-work of roads although no roads are constructed by the Forest department.

LIST OF TREES, SHRUBS, CLIMBERS, BAMBOOS AND GRASSES OCCURRING IN THE FORESTS OF RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Vernacular Name.	Botanical Name.
Ain ..	.. *Terminalia tomentosa.*
Alu ..	.. *Vangueri spinosa.*
Amba ..	.. *Mangifera indica.*
Ambada ..	.. *Spondias mangifera.*
Amberi ..	.. *Nothopegia colebrookiana.*
Ambat ..	.. *Spondias acuminata.*
Amli .	.. *Bauhinia malabarica.*
Anjani ..	.. *Memecylon edule.*
Apta ..	.. *Bauhinia racemosa.*
Asana, kutgi ..	.. *Bridelia retusa.*
Ashok ..	.. *Saraca indica.*
Awala (Amla) ..	.. *Phyllanthus emblica.*
Bakul, Wavali ..	.. *Mimusops elengi.*
Bel ..	.. *Aegle marmelos.*
Bhava ..	.. *Cassia fistula.*
Bhendi ..	.. *Chespesia populnea.*
Bherlimad ..	.. *Caryota urens.*
Bhokar, Shelu ..	.. *Cordia myxa.*
Bhoma ..	.. *Clochidion lancoolarium.*
Bibla, Asan ..	.. *Pterocarpus marsupium.*
Biba ..	.. *Semecarpus anacardium.*
Bibi ..	.. *Holigarma arnottiana.*
Bor ..	.. *Zizyphus jujuba.*
Bulgi ..	.. *Vitex altissima.*
Champhar ..	.. *Flacourtia montana.*
Chandan ..	.. *Santalum album.*
Chandaula ..	.. *Macaranga roxburghii.*
Char ..	.. *Buchanania latifolia.*
Chera ..	.. *Erinocarpus nimmonanus.*
Chinch ..	.. *Tamarindus indica.*
Dalchini ..	.. *Cinnamomum zeylanicum.*
Datir ..	.. *Ficus gibbosa.*
Datrang ..	.. *Ehretia laevis.*
Dahivan ..	.. *Cordia macleodii.*
Dhaman ..	.. *Grewia tiliaefolia.*
Dikemali ..	.. *Gardenia lucida.*
Gela ..	.. *Randia dumetorum.*
Goinda ..	.. *Diospyrus montana.*
Gulamb ..	.. *Machilus Macrantha.*
Hadkya, Malwa ..	.. *Rauwolfia serpentina.*
Hed ..	.. *Adina cordifolia.*
Hela, Vehela ..	.. *Terminalia belerica.*
Hirda ..	.. *Terminalia chebula.*
Hump ..	.. *Saccopetalum tomentosum.*
Hure ..	.. *Sapium insigne.*

CHAPTER 1.

Natural Resources.
FORESTS.

Vernacular Name.	Botanical Name.
Irai ..	.. *Calophyllum wightianum.*
Jamba ..	.. *Zylia xylocarpa.*
Jambul ..	.. *Eugenia jambolana.*
Kadam ..	.. *Anthocephalus cadamba.*
Kajra ..	.. *Strychnos nuxvomica.*
Kalhoni ..	.. *Hopea wightiana.*
Kakad ..	.. *Garuga pinnata.*
Kalamb ..	.. *Mitragyna parviflora.*
Kashi (Khargol) ..	.. *Trema orientalis.*
Karambel ..	.. *Dillenia pentagyna.*
Karanj ..	.. *Pongamia glabra.*
Kawti ..	.. *Hydnocarpus wightiana.*
Kel ..	.. *Ficus tsjakela.*
Khair ..	.. *Acacia catechu.*
Kharshing ..	.. *Stereospermum xylocarpum.*
Kharwat ..	.. *Ficus asperrima.*
Kinai ..	.. *Albizzia procera.*
Kinjal ..	.. *Terminalia paniculata.*
Kokar, Kolinder ..	.. *Sterculia guttata.*
Kokum, Bhirand ..	.. *Garcinia indica.*
Koshimb ..	.. *Schleichara trijuja.*
Kuda, Bhura ..	.. *Wrightia tinctoria.*
Kuda, Indrajava ..	.. *Holarrhena antidysenterica.*
Kuda, Nah ..	.. *Tabernaemontana heyneana.*
Kuda, Tambada ..	.. *Wrightia tomentosa.*
Kumbhi ..	.. *Careya arborea.*
Kurwei, Sirid ..	.. *Hymenodictyon obovatum.*
Lendi, Bondga ..	.. *Lagarstroemia parviflora.*
Medshing ..	.. *Dolichandrone falcata.*
Moha ..	.. *Bassia Latifolia, Bassia longifolia.*
Moi, Shemat ..	.. *Lannea grandis.*
Nagchapha ..	.. *Masua ferra.*
Naiain, Arjun Sudada	.. *Terminalia arjuna.*
Nana ..	.. *Lagerstroemia lanceolata.*
Nivar ..	.. *Barringtonia racemosa.*
Padali, Paral ..	.. *Stereospermum chelonoides.*
Pair ..	.. *Ficus arnottiana.*
Palas ..	.. *Butea frondosa.*
Panerukh, Kandol, Dalal	.. *Sterculia urens.*
Pangara ..	.. *Erythrina indica.*
Parjambul, Lauki	.. *Olea dioica.*
Pat Phanas or *Ran phanas*	.. *Artocarpus hirsuta.*
Petari ..	. *Trewia nudiflora.*
Phanas ..	.. *Artocarpus integrifolia.*
Phanshi ..	.. *Carallia integerrima.*
Phudgus ..	.. *Alseodaphne sekicarpifolia.*
Pipal ..	.. *Ficus religiosa.*
Pimpri ..	.. *Ficus tsiela.*
Pisa ..	.. *Actinodaphne hookeri.*
Pitkuli, Bhedas ..	.. *Eugenia Zeylanica.*

Vernacular Name.	Botanical Name.
Poon ..	.. *Calophyllum tomentosum.*
Popsa ..	.. *Lophopatalum wightianum.*
Ranjaiphal ..	.. *Myristica malabarica.*
Ritha ..	.. *Sapindus emarginata.*
Sag ..	.. *Tectona grandis.*
Salai ..	.. *Glochidion velutinum.*
Sali, Chella ..	.. *Aporosa lindleyana.*
Samudra or *Datte-phal*	.. *Barringtonia acutangula.*
Sardar ..	.. *Sterculia villosa.*
Satwin ..	.. *Alstonia scholaris.*
Sawar ..	.. *Bombax Malabaricum.*
Shawri ..	.. *Phoenix humilis.*
Shendri, Kakum ..	.. *Mallotus philippinensis.*
Shevaga ..	.. *Moringa pterygosperma.*
Shiras ..	.. *Albizzia lebbek.*
Shiras, Kala ..	.. *Albizzia odoratissima.*
Sisam ..	.. *Dalbergia latifolia.*
Shivan .	.. *Gmelina arborea.*
Siddam, Kapsin ..	.. *Tetrameles nudiflora.*
Songarbi ..	.. *Vitex leucoxylon.*
Surangi ..	.. *Ochrocarpus longifolius.*
Tamalpatra ..	.. *Cinnamomum temala.*
Taman, Bondara ..	.. *Lagerstroemia flospreginae.*
Tetu ..	.. *Oroxylum indicum.*
Torch tree, *Kurat*	.. *Ixora parviflora.*
Triphal ..	.. *Zanthoxylum rhetsa.*
Undi ..	.. *Colophyllum inophyllum.*
Wad ..	.. *Ficus bengalensis.*
Waras ..	.. *Heterophragma roxburghii.*
Warang ..	.. *Kydia calycina.*
Watam ..	.. *Artocarpus lakoocha.*
Wavala ..	.. *Holoptelia integrifolia.*
	Shrubs.
Adulsa ..	.. *Adhatoda vasica.*
Akra ..	.. *Strobilanthes Heyneanus.*
Ankul ..	.. *Alangium lamarkii.*
Bedki, Kalikdori	.. *Gymnema sylvestre.*
Belli Patta ..	.. *Hibiscus tiliaceus.*
Bhamini ..	.. *Colebrookia oppositifolia.*
Bhandira ..	.. *Clerodendron infortunatum.*
Bharatti ..	.. *Gymnosporia montana.*
Bohkara ..	.. *Casearia graveolens.*
Bugdi ..	.. *Aridsia humilis.*
Bukra ..	.. *Strobilanthes sessilis.*
Dinda ..	.. *Leea sambucina* and *Leea macrophylla.*
Dhaity, Dhaipal ..	.. *Woodfordia floribunda.*
Etewr ..	.. *Callicarpa lantana.*
Ghatbor ..	.. *Zizyphus xylopyra.*
Ghaneri, Tantani	.. *Lantana camara.*

CHAPTER 1.
Natural Resources.
FORESTS.

Vernacular Name.	Botanical Name.
Hasoli ..	.. *Grewia microcos.*
Hadkya ..	.. *Rauwolfia densiflora.*
Kankutti ..	.. *Flemingia strobilifera.*
Karand, karwand	.. *Carissa carandus.*
Kare ..	.. *Webera corymbosa.*
Karinimb ..	.. *Murraya koenigi.*
Katar, Karavti ..	.. *Streblus asper.*
Kevda ..	.. *Pandanus furcatus.*
Kevni ..	.. *Helicteres isora.*
Karvi ..	.. *Strobilanthes callosus.*
Kulkulta ..	.. *Casearia esulenta.*
Kutkuta ..	.. *Connarus wightii.*
Kutri ..	.. *Solanum giganteum.*
Lajalu ..	.. *Mimosa pudica.*
Lotal ..	.. *Osyris arborea.*
Maidalakri ..	.. *Litsaea sebifera.*
Makadlimbu or *ranlimbu*	.. *Atlantia monophylla.*
Manikyan ..	.. *Glycosmis pentaphylla.*
Modgi ..	.. *Casearia tomentosa.*
Nakeri, Palore ..	.. *Melastoma malabathricum.*
Narkya, Kalgur ..	.. *Mappia foetida.*
Nildook, Nerali, Amambgool.	*Elaeagnus latifoli.*
Nirgudi ..	.. *Vitex negundo.*
Nirgunda ..	.. *Vitex trifolia.*
Nivdung ..	.. *Euphorbia neriifolia.*
Pandhari ..	.. *Murraya exotica.*
Pandharphali ..	.. *Flueggia microcarpa.*
Papadi ..	.. *Pavetta indica.*
Patang ..	.. *Caesalpinia sappan.*
Parwi, Showla ..	.. *Wendlandia notoniana.*
Pit, Karvi, Gurgi ..	.. *Sprobilanthes eriocephals.*
Pitkuli ..	. *Ixora coccinea.*
Rametha ..	.. *Lasiosyphon ariocephalus.*
Ranjai, Kusari ..	. *Jasminum arborescens.*
Rakta rohida ..	.. *Maba nigrescens.*
Rui ..	. *Calotropis gigantea.*
Sabia ..	.. *Ocimum basilicum.*
Sapshi ..	. *Arispolochia indica.*
Satavari ..	.. *Asparagus racemosus.*
Sherwod, Bhutkes	. *Mussaenda frondosa.*
Sundra ..	. *Abutilon indicum.*
Tippan ..	. *Allophylus cobbe.*
Toran ..	. *Zizyphus rogosa.*
Tupa, Arsul ..	.. *Canthium umbellatum.*
Ukshi ..	.. *Calycopteris floribunda.*
Vanda, Bandgul ..	.. *Loranthus longiflorus* (found on *careya arborea* and *terminalia belerica*).

Vernacular Name.	Botanical Name.
Vanda, Bandgul ..	.. *Loranthus cuneatus* (found on *Terminalia paniculata, Lannea grandis, Vitex altissima*).
Vanda, Bandgul ..	.. *Loranthus trigonus* (found on *Eugenia dalbergia, Ficus and Mangifera* Species).
Waiwarung, Wavdung	..*Embelia ribes.*
Alei ..	..*Dalbergia volubilia.*
Bhui Kohola ..	..*Ipomaea digitata.*
Cane ..	..*Callamus pseudotenuis.*
Chambuli ..	..*Bauhinia vahlii.*
Chickani ..	..*Bridelia stipilaris*
Chillari (variety)	..*Caesalpinia mimosodies.*
Garbi ..	..*Entada scandens.*
Ghotwal ..	.. *Smilex macrophylla.*
Gunj ..	.. *Abrus precatorius.*
Gunj ..	.. *Adenanthera payonia.*
Kajarvel ..	..*Strychnos colubrina.*
Kanheri ..	..*Zizphus oenoplia.*
Kawali ..	..*Gryptostegia grandiflora.*
Kiwanchi, Kuhili ..	..*Mucuna preuriens.*
Kumbhal, Mubali ..	..*Gnetum scandens.*
Madwal ..	..*Combretum ovalifolium.*
Morwel ..	..*Clematis gourina.*
Navalicha wel ..	..*Ipomaea vitifolia.*
Palaswel ..	..*Butea superba.*
Pendguli Wel or *Ekwei*	..*Dalbergia sympathetica.*
Phulsum ..	..*Spantholobus roxburghii.*
Pikoka ..	..*Combretum extensum.*
Poir, Pasan ..	..*Phyllanthus recticulatus.*
Randraksha ..	..*Vitis indica.*
Ravanwel ..	.. *Heptopleurum venulosum.*
Samudrashoka ..	..*Argyreia speciosa*
Shembi ..	.. *Acacia pennata.*
Shikekai ..	..*Acacia concinna.*
Wakeri ..	..*Wagatea spicata.*
Wild pepper ..	..*Piper trichestachyon.*

Bamboos.

Choua, Chuva, Kadhani.	*Bamboo, Oxytenathera monostigma.*
Kalak, Padai, Mandgay, Velu.	*Bambusa arundinacea.*
Konda, Managa ..	..*Oxytenanthera stocksii.*
Shib, Udha, Medar, Kanak	..*Dendrocalamus strictus.*

CHAPTER 1.

Natural Resources.
FORESTS.

Grasses.

Bhalekusal	..	.. *Andropogon tricticeus.*
Bhongrut	..	.. *Anthistiria ciliata.*
Bhuti	..	.. *Aristida paniculata.*
Boru	..	.. *Andropogon halepensis.*
Chikra	..	.. *Etagrostis kemtremula.*
Chanya marvel	..	.. *Andropogon pertusus.*
Gondal	..	.. *Andropogon contortus.*
Kunda	..	.. *Ischoemus pilosum.*
Kusali	..	.. *Andropogon contortus.*
Marvel	..	.. *Andropogon annulatus.*
Pandhari Kusal	..	.. *Aristida paniculata.*
Rosha	..	.. *Antropogon schoenathus.*
Shimpi	..	.. *Panicum isachne.*
Vala	..	.. *Andropogon muricatum.*
Wavashi	..	.. *Saccharum procerum.*

The following is a list of the chief minor forest produce from the Ratnagiri district.

1.	*Shikekai*	..	*Acacia concinna*	.. pods for hair wash.
2.	*Apta*	..	*Bauhinia racemosa*	.. leaves for *bidis.*
3.	*Timru*	..	*Diospyros melanoxylon.*	leaves for *bidis.*
4.	*Kuda leaves*	..	*Wrightia Tinctoria*	.. leaves for *bidis.*
5.	*Hirda*	..	*Terminalia chebula*	.. fruit (variously useful).
6.	*Kaju*	..	*Anacardium occidentale.*	fruit.
7.	*Tamalpatra*	..	*Cinnamomum temala*	.. leaves used in spices.
8.	*Chiwari*	..	*Oxytenanthera monostigma.*	small sized bamboos.

WILD ANIMALS.

WILD ANIMALS : The Ratnagiri district with but few forests of any size and most of these situated on the precipitous slopes of the Sahyadrian range, is from the sportsman's point of view, essentially an extremely poor district. Large game such as tiger, sambhar and bear are scarce and their haunts more or less inaccessible. To obtain bison, the boundary of the district must be overstepped. Panthers are also uncommon and little help in finding them can be expected from the villagers, who as a rule are totally without experience or ambition in the matter. The tradition goes that one village from its great number

of panthers was called Vaghotan. Of late the villagers have exterminated panthers by setting fire to the hill sides where among the boulders, panthers had dens. Wild boars are also scarce. Hare, jackals and foxes inhabit the steep rocky hills. Two species of deer and antelope are found. The ever growing pressure of population, the development of roads and mechanised transport, have had a disastrous effect on the already meagre wild life. Wholesale unregulated trapping by hunters has reduced the number of animals considerably. The loss of suitable scrub-jungle for nesting sites due to wanton lopping of trees has also adversely affected the wild life. The area of the Koyna Project falling in this district was the main rendezvous. But due to opening up of the tract, wild life is practically disappearing.

On the other hand, from a naturalists's point of view, the district is not without interest; several families such as the rodents and the cheiroptera are well represented, and afford a hitherto but imperfectly explored field. The following is a list of the principal animals found in the district, classified in the order given in Jerdon's Mammals of India.

ORDER—PRIMATES.

Primates.
Simidae.

FAM.—SIMIDAE.—The monkeys or Simidae are represented by (1) a species of langur, probably *Presbytis* or *Semnopithecus entellus*, the *hanuman* or *vanar* and (2) the little Macaque or Bonnet monkey, *makad* or *kelte*, Macacus radiatus. The latter is readily distinguished from its various congeners by a cap of long hair resting flat on the crown. This wig, which is very frequently parted down the middle, either by accident, or perhaps through vanity, gives its possessor a very knowing and human appearance. Both species are plentiful and distributed universally throughout the district; but the langurs are perhaps more often seen as they affect the neighbourhood of large villages and towns, while as a general rule the bonnet monkeys prefer the wilder forests and more secluded haunts Both species are equally mischievous and when occasion offers they plunder the gardens and granaries by removing the tiles or thatch from the roofs of the houses. Occasionally, an old male langur, who, by reason of his general incompatibility of temper and tyrannical disposition has, as a strong but necessary measure, been ostracised by the unanimous voice of his tribe, and compelled to lead a solitary and morose life, vents his ill temper by frightening women and children and making himself generally obnoxious in the village. The assistance of police is sometimes sought to shoot rogue monkeys of this description; but such instances are very rare and the case must be hopelessly incurable before such aid is sought. The *Katkaris* a wild forest tribe, who subsist almost entirely by hunting, habitually kill and eat monkeys shooting them with bows and arrows. In order to approach within range, they are obliged to have recourse to stratagem, as the monkeys at once recognise them in their ordinary costume. The ruse usually adopted is for one of the best shots to put on a women's robe, sari, under the ample folds of which, he

CHAPTER 1. — Natural Resources. WILD ANIMALS.

generally and plentifully distributed and is found alike in thick and thin forests, rocky and almost barren hills and dense groves, wherever the low bushes on which it feeds, give sufficient herbage. Bison, *gava*, *Gavaeus gaurus*, may possibly on rare occasions stray within the limits of the district, but it cannot be properly included in the list. One or two herds range along the Sahyadris; but they keep to the more level portions of the crest, *ghat-matha*; and have not been known of late years to cross the watershed. The *nilgai*, *Portax pictus*, is practically unknown within Ratnagiri limits. Of the deer mentioned above only two species, the barking deer, *Cervulus aureus*, and the four-horned antelope, *Tetraceros quadricornis*, are found in sufficiently accessible places to repay the trouble of shooting them.

Birds.

BIRDS.—In view of the hilly character of the country side of Ratnagiri district, the district should have been rich in avifauna, to which facts do not bear truth. With the exception of a few common species of birds, the game birds are strangely rare—well nigh extinct, and from the species point of view this district is extremely poor particularly on acount of the absence of partridges, sandgrouse, bustards, quails, cranes, etc. Even as regards ducks and snipes, they are not as plentiful as they were once, and the tidal creeks and river banks which should ordinarily have been expected to swarm with them are very rarely found to have these birds in large numbers.

The waders, swimmers, divers and aquatic and oceanic species are naturally restricted to the coast and broad tidal estuaries. On the other hand birds of prey with the exception of the fishing eagles, the pigeons, doves, etc., range throughout the district. The prevailing species of birds are such as might be expected in a humid, well wooded country rather than in bare open plains. The following examples may be cited.

Rose-ringed Parakeet (*Psittacula Krameri*) is comparatively a scarce bird. Similarly, the Spotted Dove replaces almost entirely the Little Brown Dove. The Jungle Myna replaces the Common Myna, as also the Red-whiskered Bulbul takes the place of the Madras Red-vented Bulbul. Species such as the Green Barbet, the Southern Yellow Tit, the white-winged Ground Thrush, the Green Bulbul (*Chloropsis*) and other forest-loving birds are seen throughout the district. On the other hand birds which prefer a dry open plain such as Sand Grouse, Courier Plover, Bustard and others are hardly ever seen.

Order—RAPTORES.

Raptores.

This order is represented by four species of vultures, three of falsons, one of hawk, five of eagles, one of buzzard, two of harriers, two of kites and several species of owls.

Vulturidae.

Fam.—VULTURIDAE—The Indian King or Black Vulture (*Torgos*) is rarely seen and is not known to breed within the limits of the district.

The Long-billed Vulture (*Gyps indicus*) is plentiful in the fishing villages on the coast and is seen feeding in company with the white-backed vulture. It has breeding places in rocky cliffs.

The White-backed Vulture (*Gyps bengalensis*) is by far the most common vulture in the district. It has nests generally of stick platforms in lofty trees and thick groves. A lone white egg is generally laid. Two or three nests are sometimes found at a single place, and it appears that they prefer to stay in small colonies.

The White Scavenger Vulture (*Neophron perenopterus*) known locally as "PANDHRIGHAR" is not seen very commonly. It seems to breed and prefer the company of the variety mentioned above.

Falconinae.

Fam.—FALCONIDAE—*Sub-Fam.*—*Falconinae.*—The Perigrine Falcon or Bhyri (*Falco peregrinus Jrinus*) is seen occasionally along the coast and on rocky inlands off the main coast, but is extremely rare.

The Red-headed Merlin or Turumti, *Chiquera Falco* is also rare but is said to be a permanent resident. It is reported to be comparatively common in the adjoining Satara and Sangli districts where in January and February, it breeds on mango and tamarind trees, laying from three to four eggs. While breeding, these falcons are extremely noisy and vicious, attacking all intruders such as crows and kites with the greatest audacity.

The Kestrel or *Faloo Tinnunculus* makes its appearance in small parties in October at the beginning of the cold weather and leaves about the middle of March. It is not so plentiful in this district as in the Deccan plain. Major Lloyd in his list gives in addition to the above the Shahin (*Falco perigrinator*) and the Laggar (*Falco jugger*) which are reported to be probable visitors but enquiries have not revealed any trace of these varieties.

Accipitrine.

Sub-Fam.—ACCIPITRINE.—Shikra or *Astur badius* is commonly distributed and is a permanent resident, breeding in summer, laying generally four ink-spotted greenish white eggs.

Aquilinae.

Sub-Fam.—AQUILINAE.—Booted Hawk or Eagle (*Hieraetus-pennetus*) is extremely rare.

Shendri Ghar (Crested Hawk-Eagle, *Hieraetus cirrhatus*) is by far the commonest eagle in the district, distributed all over It is very destructive to poultry, quail, green pigeons, etc. and also occasionally attacks small snakes. The mango tree is often preferred by it and though other kites may have their nests nearby, particular clump of trees chosen by the pair, is treated by them as their exclusive property and no trespassers are allowed to build anywhere near. A single egg is generally laid.

The (*Spilornis Cheela*) Gested Serpent Eagle is found in forested country usually in pairs.

CHAPTER 1. — Natural Resources. BIRDS.

Mhorangi Ghar is a permanent resident and breeds in the hot weather. Snakes, lizards and frogs are its chief food.

The Osprey (*Pandion haliaetus*) is common on the larger tidal creeks and estuaries where fish are plentiful. It is a winter visitor and is often seen in company with the next species.

The White-bellied Sea Eagle (*Haliaetus lencogaster*) is found on the sea coast and a few miles up the larger tidal rivers. It is a permanent resident and breeds regularly in winter, generally sticking to the same nests which are large stick platforms. They lay two eggs measuring about 3″ × 2″. They generally keep to their nests at all times while breeding or not breeding, and return to it after their trips in search of food. It is very common to find remains of their meals — bones, skins of snakes and poultry, etc. under their nests. Any lofty tree with a strong horizontal branch suits for their nests. Generally, they hunt in pairs. Both, when perched and on the wings, utter a loud clear far-reaching resonant cry.

Buteoninae.

Sub-Fam.—BUTEONINAE.—The White-eyed Buzzard (*Butashur teesa*) is reported to be spread both in the southern and northern side of the district, but it is extremely rare.

The Pale Harrier (*Circus macrurus*) is abundant everywhere in the cold season. It comes in October just when the Malabar Crested Lark (*Galerida malabarica*) and the little Black-bellied Finch Lark (*Eremopteryx grisea*) are rearing their young broods on the bare, rocky plateaus thinly covered with coarse grass. Numbers of young Nestling Larks, partially exposed to their keen-sighted enemies, are destroyed by the harriers. By day, they hunt either singly or in pairs beating silently over plain and hillside for young birds, lizards, mice and locusts. By night they gather in large parties, roosting on the ground, often under cover of long grass. Montague's Harrier, (*Circus Pygargus*) probably visits the district in the cold season, but no reliable information is available.

The Marsh Harrier (*Circus aeruginosus*) is also occasionally found in the cold weather, but is not common.

Milvinae.

Sub-Fam.—MILVINAE.—*Tambadi Mhorangi* or the Brahmani Kite (*Haliastur indus*) is more common on the coast, but is sometimes seen inland. It prefers crabs for food. These birds build their nests rather high on cocoanut palms or mangrove trees. Usually, two eggs are laid which are white in colour and minutely speckled with reddish brown. They are inclined to desert their nests on any provocation and do not make an active defence of the young ones or eggs, but fly round overhead in short circles.

The Pariah Kite (*Milvus migrans, govinda*) is too well-known and is usually found in every village and treated with contempt as it kills chickens. The breeding season is January to March. Choosing any high tree, it makes the usual stick platform lined with leaves. The normal number of eggs is two, which vary in colour, and also somewhat in shape and size. The commonest type is a dingy-white

brown with a reddish tinge at the larger end. These birds vigorously defend their eggs dashing an intruder who climbs the tree, one on either side of him flying opposite ways, and striking at him as they rush past with wings and claws. Pariah Kite is called *ghar* or *Kombadi ghar* by the Konkanis.

Strigidae.

Fam. -STRIGIDAE.–The Indian Screech Owl (*Tyto alba*) is entirely nocturnal in its habits, hiding by day in cavities of decayed trees and buildings. It is found locally throughout the district although not very commonly. It breeds in December and January.

The Brown Wood Owl (*Strix indrance*) is a very rare species.

The Mottled Wood Owl (*Strix ocellata*) is usually found in the northern part and prefers mango clumps on the outside of the villages, rather away from the coast. They nest in January and February in cavities of trees, laying two very spherical creamy-white eggs. The young can be tamed and made docile. The birds devour lizards, grass-hoppers and cockroaches, with great gusto. Dogs are their greatest aversion. They have a rare knack, readily to learn to distinguish friends from strangers and show evident signs of alarm on seeing a strange face. They are entirely nocturnal.

The Rock Horned Owl (*Bubox bengalensis*) a rather common type found amongst rocky cliffs overhanging tidal creeks. Though it perches on trees as well as on rocks, it flies back to even distant rocks, when disturbed from a tree. It comes out directly when the sun is down. It has a deep dissyllabic hoot, which may be syllabled hoo! hoo! It feeds on rats, lizards and crabs. It breeds in January and February scooping out a hole in the earth under cover of a projecting boulder and laying three or four round, white eggs.

The Brown Fish Owl (*Bubo zeylonensis*) is common throughout the district, affecting thick forests and lofty trees always near water. Fish and crabs form its chief food. These birds thrive well in confinement, and eat raw or cooked meat. They drink water freely and greatly enjoy a bath. Popularly known as *Human,* they breed from January to March in holes of trees laying two eggs. The cry of this owl is a long deep aspirated sign, excessively human in its intonation. To those who are by nature superstitious, this repulsive laugh, when heard close overhead in the dead of night often forebodes impending danger.

Bruce's Scops Owl, *Otus brucil,* is a very rare species.

The Malabar Scops Owl (*Otus bakkamoena*) a curious little horned owl, is found throughout the district in thick groves and cocoanut gardens. It is popularly called *Kuta* in reference to its low soft call. Strictly nocturnal, it hides by day in cavities of decayed trees. It is usually seen in pairs. They nest in January in cavities of trees laying three to four glossy white eggs. Unlike other allied species, they are extremely inoffensive and if handled make no attempt to retaliate.

CHAPTER 1. — Natural Resources. BIRDS.

out of the mud, preferring this to deep-water fishing. It has a peculiar shrill call, uttered both when perched and on the wing.

The Common Indian Kingfisher, *Alcedo bengalensis* (Gmel. Jerd. 134), is one of the commonest birds in the district. It swarms on all the tidal creeks and mangrove swamps, and every little pond or large well is tenanted by a pair or more of these industrious little fisher birds.

The Pied Kingfisher, *Ceryle rudis* (Lin. Jerd. 136), is also common, but not nearly so plentiful as the earlier one. It is seen in the fresh inland rivers rather than in tidal waters.

Bucerotidae.

Fam.—BUCEROTIDAE.—The great Hornbill, *Dichoros cavatus* (Shaw. Jerd. 140), is an eccentric bird. It imprisons the brooding female in a hole of a tree, with mud plastered so as to leave a small opening; it decorates its plumage, with yellow oil paint. It keeps to the slopes of the Sahyadris and the well wooded low lands. Although they are found wandering far and wide in search of ripe berries and fruits which is their staple food, they will kill snakes when they see them. They are usually found in groups of four to six and rarely single. It is popularly called "*GARUD PAKSHI*".

The Malabar Pied Hornbill, *Hydrocissa coronata* (Bodd. Jerd. 141), is usually seen in the southern parts of the district and its habits are similar to that of the earlier one.

Tribe—SCANSORES.

Psittacide.

Fam.—PSITTACIDE.—The Roseringed Paroquet, *Paloeornis torquatus* (Bodd. Jerd. 148), is widely distributed but rarely found. It nests in cavities of trees during the hot months, laying four or more white glossless eggs. It is popularly called as *Kir* or *Popat.* The caged parrots are also called *Raghu.*

The Rose-headed Paroquet, *Paloeornis purbureus* (Mull. Jerd. 149), is the common species of the district and is abundantly found everywhere. It destroys crops.

The Blue-winged Paroquet, *Paloeornis Columboides* (Vig. Jerd. 151), a lovely species with dove grey head and blue wings, is found only in the Sahyadri forests.

The Indian Loriquet or Lovebird, *Loriculus vernalis* (Sparm Jerd. 153), popularly called *Katra,* is plentiful in almost all localities.

Picidae.

Fam.—PICIDAE.—The Yellow-fronted Woodpecker, *Picus mara thensis* (Lath. Jerd. 160), is not very common, but is occasionally seen in thin forests throughout the district.

The Golden-backed Woodpecker, *Chrysocolaptes sultaneus* (Hodgs. Jerd. 166), a beautiful bird, is found in the inland tracts at the base and on the slopes of the Sahyadris.

The Blackbacked Woodpecker, *Chrysocolaptes festivus* (Bodd. Jerd. 167), the most handsome of all the group, is commonly found in the cocoanut gardens near coast.

The Madras Rufous Woodpecker, *Misropternus gularis* (Jerd. 179), is found all over the district in thick groves and forests but not near the coast. Its head and tail are found to be smeared with resin Malherbe's Goldenbacked Woodpecker. *Brachypternus puncticollis* (Malh. Jerd. 181), is the common Woodpecker of the district distributed all over and it frequents the cocoanut. gardens on the coast as well as the inland forest tracts. It breeds in the hot months of April and May.

Magalaemidae.

Fam.—MAGALAEMIDAE.—The Malabar Green Barbet, *Megalaema inornata*, (Wald. Jerd. 193), is plentifully found during the rainy season on the Sahyadri slopes. It is popularly called as *Koturga*.

The Small Green Barbet, *Megalaema virdis*, (Bodd. Jerd. 194), is plentiful in Sahyadri forests throughout the district.

Cuculidae.

Fam.—CUCULIDAE.—The Indian Cuckoo, *Cuculus micropternus* (Gould. Jerd. 203), is a rare species in this district and is found near the mangroves only. It has a peculiar call which can be described as a double repetition of the word cuckoo.

The Indian Koel, *Eudynamys honorata* (Lin. Jerd. 214), is found everywhere, both on the coast and inland. It breeds in May and July and it lays its eggs in the nests of crows. There is a popular belief that the song or whistle of the bird heralds the coming of the monsoons. It is also believed that as it seldom alights on the ground and is thus deprived of drinking water, it has to depend on rain water.

Centropodinae

Sub-Fam.—CENTROPODINAE.—The Common Coucal. *Centrococcyx rufipennis* (Ill-Jerd. 217), popularly called *Kukudkumba* is found everywhere on the outskirts of the villages in thick bushes. One can hear its deep mournful note at all hours of the day.

Tribe--TENUIROSTRES.

Nectarinidae.

Fam.—NECTARINIDAE.—The Violeteared Red Honeysucker, *Aethopyga vigorsii* (Sykes, Jerd. 226), is found on the western slopes of the Sahyadri ranges, and sparingly near the coast in cocoanut gardens.

The Amethyst Honeysucker, *Cinnyris Zeylonica* (Lin. Jerd. 232), more widely distributed and plentiful. The males keep their exquisite plumage throughout the year. Their nests are beautiful, hung from the slenderest twigs, and rocked to and fro by every breath of wind. The nest is pear-shaped narrowing in the middle, with a side entrance shaded by a tiny overhanging porch. The materials are the finest grass lines and the nests are prettily decorated with anything that pleases the fancy of the diminutive architects. They lay two or three eggs, greenish white sparkled with brown

CHAPTER 1. — Natural Resources. BIRDS.

spots. Although *Zizyphus jujuba* tree is their favourite place for nests, they do dare to build the same in verandhas and porches of dwelling houses.

The Purple Honeysucker, *Cinnyris asiatica* (Lin. Jerd. 234), is abundant everywhere from the coast to the Sahyadri hills, wherever flowering shrubs are found. The brilliant metallic hue of the male is donned only at the pairing season, although in his winter garb of grey green little trace of his splendid wedding dress remains.

Tickell's Flowerpecker, *Dicocum erythrorhynchus* (Tick. Jerd. 238), is found in some localities. Being small in size and due to its habits of keeping to the tops of the highest trees, it is difficult to find.

The Thickbilled Flowerpecker, *Piprisoma agile* (Tick. Jerd. 240), readily distinguished by its peculiar bill from all other birds, is found sparingly at Ratnagiri and also at Sawantwadi.

Upupidae.

Fam.—UPUPIDAE.—The Indian Hoopoe, *Sutar, Upupa ceylonensis* (Reich. Jerd. 255), is found here and there throughout the district, and is to be seen near all well-wooded villages. In the cold weather these birds associate in small parties of four or five. They feed exclusively on insects.

Tribe—DENTIROSTRES.

Laniadae.

Fam.—LANIADAE.—The Rufousbacked Shrike, *Lanius erythronotus*, is (Vig. Jerd. 257), commonly found in the district in woods and hedgerows. It is popularly named as butcher bird.

The Baybacked or Hardwick's Shrike, *Lanius vittatus* (Valenc. Jerd. 260), is comparatively rare and usually found in the forests on the Sahyadri slopes.

The Common Wood Shrike, *Tephrodornis pondicerianus* (Gmel. Jerd. 265), is found in the interior as well as on the coast and is very abundant in certain localities, in groves and gardens where it is usually found in flocks.

Campephaginae.

Sub-Fam.—CAMPEPHAGINAE.—The Blackheaded Cuckoo Shrike, *Volvocivora sykesi* (Strick. Jerd. 268), is a very uncommon species obtained in well-wooded parts of the district.

The Large Cuckoo Shrike, *Graucalus macei* (Less. Jerd. 270), is common everywhere in the village groves and well-wooded tracts. Usually seen in pairs, it feeds entirely on insects and fruits. They build in forks of trees, making shallow cup nest of fine twigs, very loosely put together. The eggs, two or three in number, are of a greenish fawn colour, with pale brownish red spots. This bird has a very sweet call.

The Orange Minivet *Pericrocotus flammeus* (Forst. Jerd. 272), or the Fiery-red Bird sparingly found on the western slopes of the Sahyadris throughout the district, but never near the coast. With its

splendid red breast and glossy blue head and upper plumage, it is one of the most handsome birds in the country. It moves briskly from tree top to tree top chirping incessantly.

The Small Minivet, *Pericrocotus perigrinus* (Lin. Jerd. 276), is another small beautiful bird found in groves abundantly in all parts of the district. It also frequents low brushwood and hedgerows as well as lofty trees. It makes a very neat cup nest of fine twigs, in the forks of a tree laying two or three greenish white eggs freckled with brick-dust red.

Dicrurinae.

Sub-Fam.—DICRURINAE.—The Common Drongo Shrike, *Buchanga atra*, is the commonest bird of the district, and is universally distributed. It is equally plentiful on the bare rocky plateaus near the coast, where, failing trees, it perches on cattle and goats, and in the well-wooded inland tracts. It nests in April and May on forks of trees, laying four pinkish white eggs. It is locally called *Govinda.*

Artaminae.

Sub-Fam.—ARTAMINAE.—The Ashy Swallow Shrike, *Artamus fuscus* (Vieill. Jerd. 287), is found in Vengurle cocoanut gardens.

Muscicapidae.

Fam.—MUSCICAPIDAE.—The Paradise or Royal Flycatcher, *Muscipeta paradisi* (Linn. Jerd. 288), is found sparingly in all the well-wooded tracks of the district. The adult-males with their glossy black heads and flying white streamers are conspicuous objects when seen fluttering like streaks of silver from tree to tree. It is a restless bird always on the move in pursuit of his prey. It is known as *Dhobi* bird or *Ban Pakhru.*

The Whitespotted Fantail, *Leucocerca Leucogaster,* (Cuv. 293), an amusing and familiar little bird is very common. Its quaint manners and grotesque antics are well known Its dance, a short flight of a few feet, to and from a branch of a tree, followed by a half pirouette, a lowering of head and wings and spreading of the broad tail, is kept up incessantly throughout the day.

The Southern Brown Flycatcher, *Alseonax latirostris* (Raffl. Jerd. 297), is rare.

The Verditer Flycatcher, *stoporala melanops* (Vig. Jerd. 301) though rare near the coast is more plentiful in the well-wooded country at the base of the Sahyadri hills.

The Blue Redbreast, *cyornis tickelli,* (Vig. Jerd. 305 and 306), distributed sparingly in thick groves. It is usually seen alone, and a familiar bird.

The Whitetailed Robin or Dwarf Flycatcher, *Erythrostoma parva* (Bech. Jerd. 323), a familiar little bird, is often seen in clumps of [illegible]s in the cold weather and has a confiding way of perching upon [illegible]t ropes.

Fam.—MERULIDA, *Sub-Fam.*—MYIOTHERINA.—The Malabar Whistling Thrush, *Myiophoneus Horsfieldi,* (Vig. Jerd. 342), is found in suitable

CHAPTER 1. — Natural Resources. BIRDS.

places all along the Sahyadri range, both on the slopes and at the base of the hills, but does not extend to the coast. Its rich mellow whistle, and its love of mountain waterfalls are well known.

Merulida.

The Indian or Yellowbreasted Ground Thrush, *Pitta branchyura* (Lin. Jerd. 345), a beautifully plumaged bird, is found sparingly at the base and on the lower slopes of the Sahyadri range.

Merulinae.

Sub-Fam.—MERULINAE.—The Blue Rock Thrush, *Cyanocinclus cyanus* (Lin. Jerd. 351), is a cold weather visitant, and frequents bare rocky grounds and stony hills. It is almost always alone and feeds on the ground. It is a familiar bird and has a sweet note.

The Blueheaded Chat Thrush, *Petrophila cinclorhynchus,* (Vig. Jerd. 353), is a pretty bird, chiefly confined to the ravines and slopes of the Sahyadri range.

The Whitewinged Bush Thrush, or Ground-Thrush, *Geocichla cyanotia* (Jerd. and Self. Jerd. 354), is common and a permanent resident. It is found in gardens, groves and woods from the coast to the slopes of the Sahyadris. These birds breed generally in Mango trees, early in the rains making a cup nest of grass plastered with mud, and placing it low down in the fork of the tree. These little thrushes are very vigorous and bold in defence of their young, and fly at any intruder with intrepidity.

The Blackcapped Black-bird, *Merula nigropilae,* (Lafr. Jerd. 359), is widely distributed from the coast to the Sahyadri forests. It is a permanent resident which feeds on the ground and also fruit trees. It is more arboreal in its habits.

Timalinae.

Sub-Fam.—TIMALINAE.—The Yelloweyed Babbler, *Pyctorhis sinensis,* (Gmel. Jerd. 385), is found in small parties flying from bush to bush in low hill side brushwood. It is a noisy bird said to breed in rainy season in bamboo clumps making nests of coarse grass.

The Nilgiri Quaker Thrush, *Alcippe poiocephale,* (Jerd. 389), is found in the southern part of the district.

The Whitethroated Wren Babbler, *Dumetia albogularies* (Blyth. Jerd. 398), is comparatively very scarce in this district.

The Spotted Wren Babbler, *Pellorneum ruficeps* (Swainson Jerd. 399), is also scarce and occasionally seen in small parties in thin bush, both inland and near the coast.

The Southern Scimitar Babbler, *Pomatorhinus horsfieldi.* (Sykes. Jerd. 404), is found only on the slopes and at the foot of the Sahyadri ranges where it is a permanent resident.

The Rufous-tailed Babbler, *Malacocercus-somerviller* (Sykes. Jerd. 345), is the common babbler spread abundantly throughout the district. It is common near the coast and inland, in gardens, brush-wood and village groves. It usually feeds on

ground, hopping actively about, incessantly uttering their scolding, nagging note. It nests in June and July laying two or three greenish blue eggs and is popularly called *Kekati or Chambharin.*

Brachypodidae.

Fam.—BRACHYPODIDAE.—*Sub-Fam.*—PYCNONOTINAE.—The Ghat Black Bulbul, *Hypsipetes ganeesa* (Sykes. Jerd. 446), is very rare and perhaps restricted to the Sahyadri forests.

The Southern Redwhiskered Bulbul, *Otocompasa fuscicaudata,* (Gould. Jerd. 460), is found abundantly in small flocks, throughout the district. It breeds in the hot month of April and May, in a neat cup-like nest. It is known as *Bulandi.*

The Common Madras Bulbul, *Molpastes haemorrhous* (Gmel Jerd. 462), is a familiar abundant bird, which frequents gardens, brushwood, and fruit trees. It is destructive to vegetable gardens. Although, its note is not so sweet, it makes an amusing cage-bird. This bird lays three eggs which are dull reddish in colour. It shows greatest affection for its youngones and will desert them only as a last resort. If the young birds are obtained and kept in the cage, the parents continue to feed them fearlessly even by entering the cage. If one of the parent birds is caught and caged the other will undertake feeding the whole family, through the bars of the cage.

Phyllornithinae.

Sub-Fam.—PHYLLORNITHINAE.—The common Green Bulbul, *Phyllornis jeroni,* (Blyth. Jerd. 463), is abundant in the well-wooded tracts both on the coast and inland. These birds feed on fruits and insects and are usually found in pairs. The males differ from the females in having the chin and throat deep velvet black, the same parts being bluish green in the females.

The Common Iora, *Iora tiphia,* (Lin. Jerd. 467 and 468), both the varieties of this are met with sparingly in this district, frequenting gardens, groves and forests, not always in pairs but always on the move. While flying, the black headed males appear exceedingly pretty, coquetting with their tails spread and the silky white eufts fully exposed. They nest in a beautifully made delicate cup of the finest grass and spider web. They are permanent residents like all the bulbuls.

Oriolinae.

Sub-Fam.—ORIOLINAE.—The Indian Oriole, Mango bird or *Oriolus kundoo,* (Sykes. Jerd. 470), though it is widely distributed, is comparatively rare in this district. The local name for this is *Haldi,* a very infelicitous term.

The Black-headed Oriole, *Oriolus mealanocephalus* (Lin. Jerd 472), is the common type found abundantly where there are trees. It feeds on fruits and its clear mellow note is well-known. Its bright plumage makes it a universal favourite. It nests in rainy season and is a permanent resident.

Fam.—SYLVIADAE.—*Sub-Fam.*—SAXICOLNAE.—The Magpie Robin, *Copsychus saularis,* (Lin. Jerd. 475), is found abundantly in gardens, groves, etc. It feeds on insects and has a rather sweet song. It

CHAPTER 1.
—
Natural Resources.
BIRDS.
Sylviadae.

breeds in cavities of trees in April and May laying four or five greenish white eggs. It is very provocative while nesting and attacks fiercely any trespassers. It is locally called by the name *Chitko.*

The Shama, *Cercotrichas macrura,* (Gmel. Jerd. 476), is rare and probably extends throughout the Sahyadri range.

The Indian Black Robin, *Thamnobia fulicata,* (Lin. Jerd. 479), is commonly found on the rocky hill sides overhanging creeks and rivers. It does not like thick forests. They breed on the rocks in April and May.

The Whitewinged Black Robin, *Pratincola caprata,* (Lin. Jerd. 481), is also plentiful, on rocky bushy hills. It is a permanent resident but a less familiar bird.

The Indian Bushchat, *Pratincola indica,* (Blyth. Jerd. 483), is found sparingly during the fair season in open and stony hillsides, but rather rare. It avoids forests and high trees, perching on walls and low bushes. The whinchats come early in October, the males in brown winter plumage. They stay till late in March, when most of the males are getting their black caps, wings and tails and bright rust red breasts.

Ruticillinae.

Sub-Fam.—RUTICILLINAE.—The Indian Bluethroat, *Cyanecula suecica,* (Lin. Jerd. 514), is found sparingly in the district. It frequents reeds and long grass on the banks of river beds and mountain streams.

Calamoherpine.

Sub-Fam.—CALAMOHERPINE.—The Lesser Reed Warbler, *Acrocephlus dumetorum,* (Blyth. Jerd. 516), an active little bird, is a regular cold weather visitant, but not very common. It habitates trees, bamboo thickets,. hedgerows, and high grass by rivers and rice fields. It has a peculiar note which could be likened to the sound of the flint and steel.

Drymocinae.

Sub-Fam.—DRYMOCINAE.—The Indian Tailor Bird, *Orthotomus sutorius,* (GR. Forster, Jerd. 530), is found sparingly in wooded tracts both inland and near the coasts. They are restless creatures chirping loudly. Their nests are a marvel of skill made up by sewing one or more leaves, according to their size, into a round cup, the stitches being made with cobweb or cotton thread, neatly fastened off and knotted. In the hollow thus formed, a soft deep nest of cotton, wool is laid.

The Ashy Wren Warbler, *Prinia socialis,* (Sykes. Jerd. 534), has also similar habits.

The Malabar's Wren Warbler, *Prinia hodgsoni,* (Blyth. Jerd. 538), is perhaps the most common and found in pairs and small parties, in bushes and trees all through the district. Its nest is also like that of a true tailor bird.

CHAPTER I.
Natural Resources.
BIRDS.

The Rufous Grass Warbler or Pinc-Pinc, *Cisticola cursitans* (Frankl. Jerd. 539), is found here and there on standing corn, or reeds etc., but is rare.

The common Wren Warbler, *Drymoeca inornata*, (Sykes. Jerd. 543 and 544) is found sparingly in corn fields and hedgerows, both inland and near the coast. In weaving bottle-shaped nests it lays greenish blue eggs.

The Great Rufous Wren Warbler, *Drymoeca rufescen* (Hume. Jerd 544 bis.) is found in old forts.

Phylloscopinae.

Sub-Fam.—PHYLLOSCOPINAE.—The Bright Green Tree Warbler, *Phylloscopus nitidus*, (Lath. Jerd. 559) is plentiful throughout the district in the cold weather. The bright colours seen on arrival soon fade.

The Large Crowned Warbler, *Reguloides occipitalis* (Jerd. 563) is a rare winter visitant

Motacillinae

Sub-Fam.—MOTACILLINAE.—The Pied Wagtail, *Motacilla maderaspatensis*, (Gmel. Jerd. 589) is the common wagtail of the district found on the banks of rivers and creeks and in rice fields, either alone or in pairs. It breeds during the hot weather.

The Blackfaced Wagtail, *Motacilla dakhanensis*, (Sykes. Jerd. 591 bis), is also plentiful in cold weather and is found in rice fields. It is seen only in its winter dress with grey head and white throat.

The Grey and Yellow Wagtail, *Calobates melanope*, (Pallas. Jerd. 592), is found in the same situation in rice fields, on banks of rivers and ponds, inland as well as near the coast.

The Ashyheaded Field Wagtail *Budytes cinereo-capilla* (Savi. Jerd. 598) appears in small flocks in the cold weather and feeds in open fields. The plumage of this and other allied forms varies

The Tree Pipit, *Authus trivalis* (Lin. Jerd. 597), comes in small flocks in October and frequents gardens and corn fields, often perching on trees, is common both in inland and near the coast.

The Tree Pipit, *Anthus trivalis* (Lin. Jerd. 597), comes in small flocks in October and frequents gardens and corn fields, often perching on trees, and is common both in inland and near the coast.

The Indian Titlark, *Corydalla rufula* (Vieill. Jerd. 600), frequents rice fields and open cultivated grounds, and is common both inland and near the coast.

The Southern Yellow Tit, *Machlolophus aplonotus* (Bly. Jerd. 648). This handsome little bird is common in well wooded tracts. It is gregarious in habit and hunts for fruit and insects on the high trees with great activity.

Tribe.—CONIROSTRES.

Corvinae.

Sub-Fam.—CORVINAE.—The Indian or Bowbilled Corby, *Corvus macrorhynchus* (Wagl. Jerd. 660), is abundant in this district in almost every village, and is usually associated with the common crow.

CHAPTER 1.
—
Natural Resources.
BIRDS.

It makes rough stick nests lined with hair, fibre, etc. and lays usually four eggs. It is popularly known as *Domkawala*.

The common or Ashynecked Indian Crow, *Corvus Splendens* (Vieill. Jerd. 663), is equally abundant and makes similar nests. It is always seen congregating soon after sunset, and in straggling parties flying off with much clatter to their chosen roosts, often some miles distant from the scene of their daily depredations. Mangrove swamps are often patronised by it. With it settling down for the night is work of time and is only accomplished after incessant squabbles and a tedious and long process of summary ejectments and hardworn recoveries. A report of gun produces the wildest confusion. It is popularly known as *Son-Kawala*.

The Indian Magpie, *Dendrocitta rufa* (Scop. Jerd. 674), is distributed in small numbers throughout the district in well-wooded tracts, both inland and near the coast. Its peculiar and inimitable whistle always betrays its presence in a grove or a forest. It wanders about the country in search of food. It is popularly known as a *paritin* or water-woman.

Struninae.

Sub-Fam.—STRUNINAE.—The Common Myna, *Acridotheres tristis* (Lin. Jerd. 684), is very rare in the district. It breeds in the rainy season in cavities of trees laying four or five white eggs.

The Dusky Myna, *Acridotheres fuscus* (Wagler. Jerd. 686), is abundant throughout the district, and more especially in the well-wooded tracts. It nests in the hot weather, April and May, in holes of trees. The nests are loose and jubbled. They gather towards dusk and roost in large flocks. The local name for both is *sulunki*.

The Pagoda or Blackheaded Brahmani Myna, *Sturnia pagodarum* (Gmel. Jerd. 687), is found in the southern parts. It feeds both on the ground and on fruits.

The Rosecoloured Starling or Javari Bird, *Pastor rosens* (Lin. Jerd. 690), comes in the cold weather in considerable numbers. It repairs to well-wooded tracts after the winter crops are reaped. It leaves for its summer quarters late in April. It is popularly known as *Kalpi*.

Fringillidae.

Fam.—FRINGILLIDAE.—*Sub-Fam.*—PLOCEINAE.—The Common Weaver bird or Little Baya, *Ploceus Philippinus* (Lin. Jerd. 694), is found everywhere in vast flocks in winter. It is gregarious in roosting. The nests are made of coir fibre or strong grass. The local name for it is *bhorade*.

Estreldinae.

Sub-Fam.—ESTRELDINAE.—The Spotted Munia, *Amadina punctualata* (Lin. Jerd. 699), is partially distributed and seen in flocks in the cold weather frequenting rice fields away from the coast.

The Whitebacked Munia, *Amadina striata* (L. Jerd. 700), is common everywhere in gardens, from the coast to the Sahyadris. It is social in its habits. The nests are globular balls of grass with a side entrance covered with dry blades of *nachani*.

Passerinae.

Sub-Fam.—PASSERINAE.—The house sparrow, *passer domesticus* (Lin. Jerd. 706), is perhaps less common than in other districts. The yellow neck variety is also seen.

Alaudinae.

Sub-Fam.—ALAUDINAE.—The Black-bellied Finch Lark *Pyrrhulauda grisea,* (Scop. Jerd. 760). This little lark called *Bhatki* is abundant throughout the district. Especially plentiful on the bare laterite plateau. The nest is a soft little pad of fine grass lined with pieces of wool. The little larks have many enemies. Snakes and cowherds destroy their eggs. The keen-eyed harriers and kites are constantly on a look-out all over the bare rocky plains in search of an inviting feast.

The Southern Crown Crest, *Spizalauda malabarica* (Scop. Jerd. 765) is common throughout the district in open plains, rocky plateaus, and grassy table-lands. It is a good songster, and sings loudly on the wing. The nests are hidden under cover of grass or found on the bare rock, sheltered by a stone. The nests are made of grass in which two or three eggs are laid. It is locally known as *Chendul* or *Chorpi.*

The Indian sky-lark, *Alauda gulgula,* (Frankl. Jerd. 767), is known to have been found in the southern parts of the district, and is rare.

Order—GEMITORES.

Gemitores.

The pigeons and doves found in this district comprise two species of green pigeon, one wood pigeon, the blue rock pigeon, five turtle doves and one ground dove. The green pigeon and the spotted dove are common while the rest are more or less scarce.

Teronidae.

Fam.—TERONIDAE.—The southern green pigeon, *Crocopus chlorigaster,* (Blyth. Jerd. 773), is found abundantly, both inland and near the coast in well wooded tracts. A banyan or a *pimpal* or a large *bor,* attracts them. They are very shy and easily disturbed. Their flesh makes a good dish. It is locally known as *pusava.*

The Malbar or Greyfronted Green Pigeon, *Osmotreron malabarica,* (Jerd. 775), is found in the inland in well wooded tracts but never seen near the coast. It associates in considerable flocks in groves and forests. The eyes both of this and the last species are exceedingly beautiful, an inner ring of crimson enclosed in an outer circle of blue, which when blended, give a violet hue to the whole.

Columbidae.

Fam.—COLUMBIDAE.—*Sub-Fam.*—PALUMBINAE.—The Nilgiri Wood Pigeon, *Palumbus Elphinstonii,* (Sykes. Jerd. 786), it occurs along the Sahyadrian range.

Columbinae.

Sub-Fam.—COLUMBINAE.—The Blue Rock Pigeon, *Columba intermedia,* (Strickl. Jerd. 788), is comparatively scarce in this district

CHAPTER 1. — Natural Resources. BIRDS.

as are other grain feeding birds, as the land is too poor for them. They are also found in the massive old sea walls of Suvarnadurga and on the rocks of Vengurla, a few miles from the mainland. They seem to hoard grain in their homes for use during the stormy weather which if true is a good illustration of the development of an instinct to meet exceptional needs.

Turturinae.

Sub-Fam.—TURTURINAE.—The Spotted or Speckled Dove, *Turtur surantensia*, (Gmel. Jerd. 795), is the common dove which is abundant in this district and is found everywhere. It almost replaces the little brown dove. Its nest is found at all times. It lays glossy white eggs. The nests are thin, flat stick platforms so thin at the bottom that it is always a wonder that the eggs do not tumble through, and so flat that the eggs seem always in danger of being rolled over the sides. *Cactus* bushes and low trees are the favourite sites for their nests. It is locally called *kavada*.

The Common Ring Dove, *Turtur risorius*, (Lin. Jerd. 796), is found occasionally in large flocks on the low lands in winter, disappearing entirely at the approach of the hot weather and in all probability returning to the Deccan plains to breed.

Gouridae.

Fam.—GOURIDAE.—The Emerald Dove, *Chalcophas indica*, (Lin Jerd. 798). It does not like thick forest and is rarely found away from the coast.

Order—RASORES.

Rasores.

The district is poorly supplied with gallinaceous birds. Sand grouse, Painted Francolins, and Grey Partridges are entirely wanting and Grey and Rain Quails are so scarce that they are hardly worth the trouble of beating for. The only game bird that is at all available, is the pretty little jungle bush quail or dwarf partridge, found on all the bushy hill sides that overhang the deep valleys and ravines intersecting the rugged country. Jungle fowl and spur fowl are rarely seen away from the Sahyadrian forests while Pea Fowl are though more widely distributed, nowhere plentiful. The following species are known to occur.—

Phasianidae.

Fam.—PHASIANIDAE.—The common peacock, *Mor*, *Pavo cristatus*, (Lin. Jerd. 803), is found sparingly throughout the district on the stiff slopes well clad with trees overhanging large tidal creeks. They may be seen about sunset on the banks where they come to feed. Inland they resort to large temple groves with luxuriant undergrowth. They breed during the rainy season and the males begin to assume their splendid trains in May.

Gallinae.

Sub-Fam.—GALLINAE.—The Grey Jungle Fowl, *Gallus sonnerati*, (Tem. Jerd. 813), popularly known as *Ran-Kombadu*, is found in the Sahyadrian range. Its eggs are sometimes set under domestic hens but it is difficult to rear up the chicks in confinement.

Tetraonidae.

Fam.—TETRAONIDAE.—*Sub-Fam.*—*Perdicinae*.—The Jungle Bush Quail, or Dwarf Partridge, *Perdicula asiatica*, (Lath. Jerd. 826), is to some extent found on the hill sides. When first flushed, they rise together to the thickest cover from where it is difficult to dislodge

them. They call their companions incessantly, if separated, and reunite quickly if possible. They feed on forest glades, hill paths, etc. They can be caught on the dark-nights with the aid of torches, being completely dazed by the light, they fall an easy prey.

Coturicinae.

Sub-Fam.—COTURICINAE.—The Large Grey Quail, *Coturnix communis,* (Bonn. Jerd. 829), is very rare and may be found in the cold weather in the fields of *tur* and other winter crops.

Tinamidae.

Fam.—TINAMIDAE.—The Black Breasted Bustard Quail, *Turnix taigcor.* (Sykes. Jerd. 832), is found in *tur* crops on the banks of rivers. The absence of hind toes in this species distinguishes it from all other quails. The females of this species are larger and more boldly marked than the males.

The Button Quail, *Turnix dussumieri, durva,* (Tem. Jerd. 835), is widely distributed but is nowhere common or abundant. It is found in groves, thin brushwood and tilled land. It is almost always flushed singly, rarely in pairs and never in broods. It is probably a permanent resident.

Order--GRALLATORES.

Grallatores.

The numerous tidal creeks and backwaters, whose soft mud banks harbour myriads of molluscs, crabs, aquatic insects, and other slimy but inviting morsels, and the rice fields, mangrove swamps, and salt marshes with which the coast portion of the district abounds attract a large and motley company of waders or shore birds. They are the only game birds worth the name. The aquatic waders are more numerous than others. The golden plover and the pretty little ringed plover who divide their attentions equally between river sides and grassy plains are rather common. Amongst longirostres, snipe, sandpipers, and surlews are numerous, while the godwits and stints are either rare or entirely absent. Despite the humid climate and large area of swampy lands the tribe of latitores is rare. Amongst the cultirosters only one species of stork occurs. The herons and egrets are numerously represented.

Tribe--PRESSIROSTRES.

Curseridae.

Fam.—CURSERIDAE.—The Indian Courser, Cursorius coromandelicus, (Gmel. Jerd. 840), is found on the laterite plateau although it is very rare.

Charadridae.

Sub-Fam.—CHARADRIDAE.—The Grey Plover, *Squatarola helvetica,* (Gmel. Jerd. 844), though rare can be found in the winter near the coast or on the banks of tidal creeks.

The Golden Plover, *Charadrius fulous,* (Gmel. Jerd. 845), is seen in small flocks on the muddy banks of tidal rivers. They resort to rice fields during the high tide, returning to the banks with the receding tide. They are constantly seen in their handsome nuptial plumage [illegible] in May.

The Large Sand Plover, *Aggialitis geoffroyi,* (Wagler, Jerd. 846), is also found on the coast. The lesser sand plover is fcund abundantly on the sea shore and tidal creeks only in large flocks. It is exceedingly confiding by nature.

CHAPTER 1.
—
Natural Resources.
BIRDS.

The Indian or Small Ringed Plover, *Aegilaitis curonicus*, (Gmel Jerd. 849), frequents river banks and rice fields. Its neat and conspicuous black and white collar distinguishes it from other species. It is also found on drier land.

Vanellinae.

Sub-Fam.—VANELLINAE.—The red wattled lapwing, *Lobivanellus indicus*, (Bodd. Jerd. 855), popularly called *titvi*, is plentiful near the rivers, streams and rice fields. It is a permanent resident, laying typical eggs.

Esacinae.

Sub-Fam.—ESACINAE.—The Indian Stone Plover, *Cedicnemus scolopax*, (S. G. Gm. Jerd. 859), is sparingly found on the laterite plateau under cover of the thin stunted bushes or coarse grass.

Hoematepodidae.

Fam.—HOEMATEPODIDAE.—The Oyster Catcher or Sea Pie, *Hoematopus ostralegus*; (Lin. Jerd. 862), is a winter visitant to the coast and large tidal creeks in small flocks. It feeds on the mud banks, picking up shell fish, frequently standing in the water up to its knees, probing with its long bill in the mud.

Tribe—LONGIROSTERS.

Totaninae.

Sub-Fam.—TOTANINAE.—The Spotted Sandpiper, *Rhyacophila glareola*, (Lin. Jerd. 891), is occasionally found in winter by the edges of reedy ponds and in flooded rice fields.

The Green Sandpiper, *Totanus ochropus*, (Lin. Jerd. 892), is more plentiful in the district than the last, but is nowhere abundant. It frequents river banks, marshes and rice fields. It is usually solitary.

Of the Common Sandpiper, *Tringoides hypoleucus*, (Lin. Jerd. 893), the little snippet is one of the most common and widely distributed birds. In the cold weather, throughout the length and breadth of the district, on the sandy beach, on rocks jutting into the sea, in the tidal estuaries, on sand and mud banks, in mangrove swamps and salt marshes, in rice fields and on margins of ponds, by mountain streams and rivulets, this industrious little bird is found, while the spotted and green sand-piper are less common. These birds come early in winter and stay till the beginning of May. The local name for all the sandpipers is *Tivala*.

The Greenshanks, *Totanus glottis*, (Lin. Jerd. 894), and the Redshanks, *Totanus Calidris*, (L. Jerd. 897), are plentiful during the cold season on all the rivers and tidal creeks.

Tribe—LATITORES.

Parridae.

Fam.—PARRIDAE.—The Pheasant-tailed Jacana, *Hydrophasianus chirurgus*, (Scop. Jerd. 901), visits in winter in small flocks all over the district in large ponds grown with weeds. They are shy and restless, always on the alert and circling round the pond before again alighting. They leave in the hot weather.

Ralliade.

Fam.—RALLIADE.—*Sub-Fam.*—GALLINULINAE.—The Bald or Common Coot, *Pankombadi*, *Fulica atra*, (Lin. Jerd. 903), was said to have been plentiful in the past, but it seems to have forsaken its old haunts and as in the case of ducks has also decreased.

CHAPTER 1.

Natural Resources.

BIRDS.

The Water Hen, *Gallinula Chloropus*, (Lin. Jerd. 903). It may be found in almost any little frequented reedy pond. These birds are great skulkers, and are flushed with difficulty. Their local name is *Gafea*.

The White Breasted Water Hen, *Erythra phoenicura*, (Pennant Jerd. 907), is distributed sparingly throughout the district, but found nearer the coast than inland, it makes its habitation in mangrove swamps and bushes by the banks of tidal creeks. It breeds during the rainy season in hedges and thickets far from water.

Rallinae.

Sub-Fam.—RALLINAE.—The Pigmy Rail or Bailon's Crake, *Zapornis pygmaca* (*Naum*) or *Porzana Baillont* (Vieill. Jerd. 910), seems common throughout the district. It is found by the edges of reedy ponds, in mangrove swamps and in flooded rice fields.

Tribe—CULTIROSTRES.

Ciconidae.

Fam.—CICONIDAE.—The White-necked Stork, *kandesar* or *kaner*. *Dissura episcopa*, (Bood. Jerd. 920), is sparingly seen in many parts of the district. It is sometimes seen by the banks of the rivers and sometimes inland far from water. It is rarer in the neighbourhood of the coast than inland.

Ardeidæ.

Fam.—ARDEIDAE.—The Common or Blue Heron, *Ardea Cinerea*, (Lin. Jerd. 923), is found during the cold season on large tidal rivers. It feeds on the mud banks and in mangrove swamps as a rule, unlike the next species, with no attempt at concealment. The local name for this and the purple heron is *dok* or to be more exact *dhok*.

The Purple Heron, *Ardea Purpurea*, (Lin. Jerd. 924), is also found during the cold months, but is not so plentiful. It keeps more to the thick cover of high reeds that fringe the course of the tidal rivers.

The Smaller White Heron or Egret, *Herodias torra*, (Buch. Ham. Jerd. 925), as distinguished from the white heron of Europe, *Ardea alba*, (Lin.), is abundant on all the big rivers of the district. from October to May. Shortly after their bills have turned from yellow to black and they have assumed their splendid dorsal trains, they disappear to breed. Towards sunset they gather in vast numbers to wend their way to clumps of mangrove trees, which form common roosting places for them. The local name for all the white egrets, large and small is *bali*.

The Little Egret, *Herodias garzetta*, (Lin. Jerd. 927), is still more plentiful than the last, throughout the cold and hot weather, disappears at the first burst of the rainy season. Its habits are in every way similar to those of the last. The familiar little egret strays further inland and during daytime is found by every rustic stream and water course. It has a crest of two elongated white feathers and marked breast plumes, both of which are wanting in the preceding species. The train also lasts longer than in other members of the family.

CHAPTER 1.
—
Natural Resources.
BIRDS.

The Ashy Egret, *Demiegretta gularis*, (Bosc. Jerd. 928), is found sparingly on the large creeks during the fair season, and usually in company with the white egrets, whom it resembles in its habits, being lonely by day and gregarious by night.

The Cattle Egret, *Bubulcus coromandus*, (Bodd. Jerd. 929) though less plentiful than the little egret, is spread throughout the district. It roosts in company with the other members of its family, but keeps in flocks during the day time and is never alone. Its habits of following cattle wherever grazing is well known, but like other egrets, it feeds also on fish and tadpoles. Rice fields are its favourite feeding grounds. During the rainy season this bird disappears from the district presumably to breed elsewhere. If wounded or caught alive it is very easily tamed and is an amusing pet, being especially active, after lamps are lighted, in gobbling up the innumerable insects attracted by the lights. These birds would appear to have a horror of thunder and lighting.

The Indian Pond Heron, *bagla* or *koko, Ardeola grayii*, (Sykes. Jerd. 930), is very abundant throughout the district in swamps and rice fields, ponds and rivers. Its habits are well known. It dons its full breeding plumage, long white crest and dark maroon train about the end of May, and is almost completely transformed by the process.

The Little Green Bittern, *Butorides javanica*, (Horsf. Jerd. 931), found throughout the district on all the creeks and rivers, is especially plentiful in the mangrove swamps. It is a permanent resident and breeds in April and May. The nests are small flat stick platforms placed in trees or bushes overhanging water, and are well hid from view. The eggs are of a pure pale sea green, or *eau-de Nil* colour. This species is chiefly nocturnal in its habits, seldom coming out of its thick cover before sunset. The villagers call this bird *Khajan Kombada* or *swamp hen*.

The Night-heron, *Nycticorax griseus*, (Lin. Jerd. 937), is obtained rarely and owing to its nocturnal habits, is difficult to find.

Ibisinae.

Sub-Fam.—IBISINAE.—The White Ibis melanocephala, (Lath. Jerd. 941), is found in small parties during the cold season feeding on the mud banks of the large tidal rivers, it is gregarious by day and roosts by night with the herons, egrets, etc. This species as well as the curlew and whimbrel. is called *kuri* by the villagers.

Order—NATATORES.

Natatores.

The first great tribe of this order, the Lamellirostres, comprising flamingoes, geese, and duck is very poorly represented both in species and individuals. Of true geese there are none. The spur-winged black-backed goose, the ruddy shieldrake or Brahmani duck, the sole members of the family of Anseridae who are the whistling teal and the little goslet or cotton teal and flamingoes are found rarely. Six species of true ducks and two of diving ducks or pochards have

been recorded; but of these, only two, the wigeon and the common teal, are at all more common. Of the margidae or Mergansers representatives occur. Few ducks, are found at any great distance from the coast. Here and there an old disused pond attracts a small party of gadwalls, teals or pochards. Of the Mergitores, the little grobe or dabchick is the sole representative. The next tribe, the Vagatores, contributes four kinds of gulls and five of terns; the other family of this tribe, the Procellaridae, consisting of albatrosses and petrels, being unrepresented. Lastly, the large tribe of Piscatores has but two representatives, the little cormorant and the snake bird.

Tribe–LAMELLIROSTRES.

Phoenicopteridae.

Fam.–PHOENICOPTERIDAE.–The Flamingo, *Phoenicopeterus antiquorum* (Pallas Jerd. 944), visits in small numbers, the large tidal backwater to the north of Ratnagiri fort during the cold weather.

Anseridae.

Fam.–ANSERIDAE.–*Sub-Fam.*–NETTAPODINAE.–The Whitebodied Goose Teal or Cotton Teal, *Nettapus coromandelianus,* (Gmel. Jerd. 951), a cold weather visitant is comparatively scarce. It is often alone and does not appear to be a permanent resident.

Tadorninae.

Sub-Fam.–TADORNINAE.–The Whistling Teal. *Dendrocygna javanika,* (Horsf. Jerd. 952), is very rare in this district.

Anatidae.

Fam.–ANATIDAE.–*Sub-Fam.*–ANATINAE.–The Shoveller, *Spatula Clypeata,* (Lin. Jerd. 957), is also a rare species in this district.

The Gadwall, *Chaulelasmus streperus,* (Lin. Jerd. 961), is found in small parties here and there throughout the district during the cold weather, in reedy ponds and in larger rivers, but is by no means abundant. It makes an excellent eating.

The Wigeon, *Marecă penelope,* (Lin. Jerd. 963), is the only species of duck at all abundant in the district; but it is very locally distributed. These birds are late in coming, but fatten very rapidly and are excellent birds for the table. They feed by day in the swamps and lagoons, and generally about sunset gather on the open water.

The Common Teal, *Querquedula crecca,* (Lin. Jerd. 964), comes early in the cold weather in small flocks and though nowhere very plentiful, is widely distributed throughout the district, frequenting alike open rivers, reedy ponds and flooded rice fields.

The Bluewingod or Garganey Teal, *Querquedula Circia,* (Lin. Jerd. 965), which is more rare, prefers lonely ponds.

Fuligulinae.

Sub-Fam. FULIGULINAE.–The White-eyed Duck. *Fuligula nyroca* (Guld. Jerd. 969). is a rare bird in the district. The golden eyed or tufted duck, *Fuligula oristata,* (L. Jerd. 971), has also been found in this district. The local vernacular name for all the species of Anatidae is *adla* or *Badak.*

CHAPTER 1.

Natural Resources.

BIRDS.

Tribe—MERGITORES.

Podicipidae.

Fam.—PODICIPIDAE.—The little Grebe or Dabchick, *Podiceps minor* (Lin. Jerd. 975), is found throughout the district, in pools and reservoirs, wherever there are rushes and floating aquatic weeds to afford cover. It is probably a cold weather visitant only. The local name for this and indeed all other diving birds is *pan-bud.*

Tribe—VAGATORES.

Laridae.

Fam.—LARIDAE.—*Sub-Fam.*—LARINAE.—The Slaty Herring Gull, *Larus affinis,* (Jerd. 978, ter.), sparingly occurs on the coast.

The Great Blackheaded Gull, *Larus inchthyaetus,* is,(Pallas, Jerd. 979), reported to be seen on the coast in the past but is now rare.

The Brownheaded Gull, .*Larus brunneicephalus,* (Jerd. 980), is abundant throughout the cold season on the coast and main tidal estuaries, and for some miles up the larger rivers. It associates in large flocks. In winter the brown plumage of the head and neck is replaced almost entirely by white.

The Laughing Gull, *Larus ridibundus,* (Lin. Jerd. 981), appears to be much rare than the preceding species. The vernacular name for all the gulls is *Kira.*

Sterninae.

Sub-Fam.—STERNINAE.—The Gullbilled Tern, *Sterna anglica,* (Mont. Jerd. 983), is found for the greater part of the year, on all the tidal rivers, both near the coast and far inland, either alone or in small parties.

The Whitechecked Tern, *Sterna Albigena,* (Licht. Jerd. 986), arrives on the Ratnagiri coast in considerable numbers towards the end of September.

The Little Tern, *sterna saundersi,* (Hume. Jerd. 988), also visits the coast and tidal rivers in the cold weather arriving with the last species in September.

The Large Sea Tern, *Sterna bergii,* (Lichst. Jerd. 989), has not been found of late.

The Smaller Sea Tern, *Sterna media,* (Horsf. Jerd. 990, Jerd. 984) in all probability occurs in this district. The vernacular word for terns is *Kira,* the same as for gull.

Tribe—PISCATORES.

Graculidae.

Fam.—GRACULIDAE.—*Sub-Fam.*—GRACULINAE.—The little Cormorant or Shag, *Phalacracorax pygaeus,* (Pall. Jerd. 1007), is exceedingly common throughout the district on all the larger rivers. It appears on the approach of the rainy season to leave the district and go elsewhere to breed. By day it is sometimes alone and sometimes in small parties. These industrious fishers travel many miles up the rivers in search of choice hunting grounds, returning to a common roost at night. Standing on the banks of any of the large rivers

BIRDS.

about sundown, one may see thousands wending their way to their chosen roost, skimming over the surface of the water in a continuous succession of small parties. They are called by the villagers *pan-kavala* or water-crows.

Water-crows. Plotinae.

Sub-Fam.—PLOTINAE.—The Indian Snake Bird or Anhinga, *Pan-buda, Plotus melanogaster* (Gmel. Jerd. 1008), is also plentiful throughout the district, frequenting alike large and small rivers. It is probably a permanent resident, but its nests have not been discovered. Like the heron and cormorant, it is usually solitary by day and gregarious at night.

FISH. Introduction.

FISH.—Ratnagiri district is one of the most important maritime districts of the State with the coastal belt extending to about 200 miles from Boria in the north to Reddi in the south. Fishing industry in the district is mainly dependent upon the exploitation of marine resources.

The district is considered under-developed in practically every field and fisheries is no exception to it. The area though rich in fishes has remained under-exploited mainly because of the age-old method of fishing by sail crafts. In addition to this, the state of under-development is due to lack of facilities in communication, transport and preservation. Illiteracy prevailing amongst the fishermen of the district is also one of the handicaps in the general development of fisheries.

Fish.

The ichtyological fauna of Ratnagiri is very rich comprising a good number of varieties. The estimated yearly fish catch of the district is 20,000 tons. Besides this, shell fisheries are also exploited in a number of creeks, backwaters and estuaries along the coast.

Fishing Gear.

Fishing gear of Ratnagiri district can be grouped under the following five main heads :—

(A) Gill nets ; (B) Long lines ; (C) Seine nets ; (D) Bag nets ; and (E) Cast nets.

Gill nets : *Wavri net.*—This is a surface drift net used all along the coast. This net consists of 20-25 pieces. Each piece varies from 140′×240′ in length and 15′ in breadth. Mesh size is 3″ to 4″ (Stretched). The nets are made out of hemp and cotton twine, varying from 9-15 plies of 18 to 20 counts. The fishermen are gradually changing over to nylon gill nets made out of 210 to 250 Danier yarn of 9-12 plies. The approximate cost of each piece is estimated at between Rs. 25 to Rs. 40 for hemp and cotton twine and between Rs. 80 to Rs. 140 for nylon. The net is used for catching pomfrets, tuna, silver bar, *seer* fish, etc. These nets are used from September to December and late in summer during April and May.

Pas or Saranga Jal.—This is also a type of surface drift net and as the name indicates, is exclusively used for catching pomfrets. The net consists of 20-40 pieces, each piece measuring 240′ in length

and 15′ in breadth with mesh size of 5″ to 6″. The material used in the construction of the gear is similar to that used for *Waori nets* described above.

Ghol net.—As the name suggests, the net is used mainly to catch *Ghol* fish. The net consists of 12 to 16 pieces, each piece measuring 120′ in length and 10′ in breadth with mesh size of 6″.

Budi net.—This is a bottom set gill net made of hemp twine of 24 plies. As the net is used for catching big fishes like Sharks, Skates, Rays, etc., the mesh size is 8″ to 9″. Each unit consists of 7 to 10 pieces, each piece measuring 100′ in length and 12′ in breadth.

Long lines.—In this type of fishing Mustad hooks Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 6, 7, 8, 9 are most commonly used. Length of each line varies from 500′ to 1,200′ and about 100 hooks are suspended from one line. Seven to twelve such lines are used at a time. Hooks are baited with pieces of catfish, ribbon fish and squids depending upon the size of hooks to be used. It may be stated that this method of fishing has practically replaced fishing by bottom set gill nets, which are rather expensive compared with long lines. Main varieties of fish caught by long lines fishing are catfishes, port hole fishes and sharks.

Seine Nets : *Rampan net* (*Shore seine*).—The net consists of three pieces known as (i) *Karel*, (ii) *Modan*, and (iii) *Ghol*; their measurements are as follows :—

Piece.		Length.	Height.	Mesh.
Karel	..	24′	18′ to 27′	1½″
Modan	..	21′	28′ to 30′	1″
Ghol	..	16′	31′ to 33′	¾″ to ½″

In *Rampan net* of 100 pieces, *Karel* part consists of 60 pieces; *Modan* consists of 22 pieces and *Ghol* consists of 18 pieces. Rampan nets which are used at Malvan and Devbag consist of 200 to 300 pieces of the abovementioned components. Approximately 30 to 40 persons are required for dragging the net. Material used for making the gear is hemp and cotton twine. The net is used for catching shoal fishes like mackerel and sardines.

Dhangad Jal.—This is another type of seine net consisting of 7 to 8 pieces, each piece measuring 100′ in length and 12′ in breadth having a mesh size of 7″ to 8″. The net is constructed of hemp twine and is used for catching *Karel* and *surmai*.

Jot net.—The method of operation of this net is very similar to that of 'purse-seine'. The net is 60′ in length and approximately 9′ in breadth. The mesh size varies from ½″ to 1½″ and is prepared out

of hemp twine. The net is exclusively used at Malvan, an important fishing centre, south of Ratnagiri. The fishes caught are jew fish and catfish.

Bag Nets.—*Dol*.—This is a funnel shaped net and consists of five distinct portions, viz., (1) *Mhor*; (2) *Chirate*; (3) *Katra*; (4) *Majola* and (5) *Khola*. The mesh size diminishes from 9" to ½" from *Mhor* to *Khola*. The length of the net varies from 80' to 120' and is fixed with the help of *sus* (barrels). *Dol* is used only from Bankot to Dabhol because of a fairly strong current prevailing in the area. Fishes caught in the net are jew fish, ribbon fish, *mandeli*, Bombay ducks and Prawns.

Bokshi.—This is a miniature *dol* net operated in the creeks.

Cast Net.--*Pag*.—The net is prepared from cotton twine and has a circumference of 125' and a radius of 12' to 18'. Mesh size varies from 1/8" to 1". Fishes caught in the net are sardines, mackerels and prawns.

Fishing Season.

Fishing season commences from September and lasts till the end of May. There is practically no fishing in the monsoon except in the creeks. Sharks, skates, rays, mackerels, sardines, *tuna*, *surmai* pomfret, *karel*, *dagol* and catfish form the main varieties of the district.

(1) Sharks, skates and rays.—They are caught throughout the fishing season with the help of long-lines and bottom-set gill-nets.

(2) Mackerel and sardine.—They are caught in the *Rampan*-nets from November to February.

(3) *Tuna and Surmai*.—They are caught in the surface drift-nets from September to December.

(4) Pomfrets.—They are caught in surface as well as bottom-set gill-nets from September to December and April-May.

(5) Silver bar or *Karli*.—These are mostly caught in bottom-set gill-nets from January to May.

(6) *Dagol* and catfishes.—These are mostly caught by long-lines throughout the fishing season.

Fishermen.

The total population of fishermen in the district is estimated at 70,000, out of which about 14,000 are active fishermen. The fishermen are scattered in 118 fishing villages along the coast. The fishermen belong to the *Bhoi*, *Koli*. *Kharvi*, *Gabit*, *Muslim* and *Christian* communities.

With a view to provide educational facilities to fishermen's children, the Fisheries department has established fisheries schools at Ratnagiri, Sakrinata, Mithbao and Tarkarli.

CHAPTER 1. — Physical Features. Fish. Disposal of catch.

Facilities for preservation such as cold storage are lacking in the district. However, the Department of Fisheries has provided preservation facilities by establishing 21 fish curing yards along the coast where fish are cured with salt under the supervision of departmental staff. At present curing of fish by salt is the only effective method in the district, by which supplies of fish available during the season at coastal places can be made available throughout the year. Approximately 5,000 tons of fish are cured annually.

Besides meeting the local demand for the market places at Chiplun, Sangameshwar, Lanje, Kankavli, Phonda and Sawantwadi, Ratnagiri fish is also transported outside the district to Mahad, Miraj, Kolhapur, Karad, Satara, Belgaum, etc. About 1,731 tons (50,000 maunds) of fish are usually transported in the aforesaid manner.

Wet salted fish is despatched in considerable quantities to the Madras State for consumption or for subsequent export to Ceylon and elsewhere.

Dry unsalted fish, which is the cheapest, is consumed by the poorest class in the interior. Dabhol, Bankot and Vijayadurg are very large centres for the collection of dry fish. The fish is sent to the interior markets in the district and to the markets in the neighbouring districts like Kolaba and Kolhapur.

Co-operative Societies.

There are twelve fishermen's co-operative societies in the district. The co-operative movement in the district, however, has not been able to make desired progress because most of the societies do not possess the necessary funds to carry out the development programme. The schemes under *Konkan Vikas,* however, are likely to give necessary impetus to the co-operative societies.

Konkan Vikas Programme.

Under *Konkan Vikas* Programme the Fisheries Department will be undertaking exploratory fishing by modern type of fishing craft and gear, establishment of ice and cold storage, provision of transport facilities and supply of fishery requisites at subsidised rates. The monetary costs involved in *Konkan Vikas* schemes for Ratnagiri district is estimated at Rs. 12·5 lakhs.

Research.

The commercial development of fisheries postulates scientific investigation of fishery problems such as life historics of important food fishes available in the locality, their spawning grounds, feeding habits, seasonal migrations brought about by such factors as changes in the planktonic food, chemical nature of water and the population studies of different groups of fish, etc. With this object in view the Fisheries Department has established the Marine Biological Research Station, at Ratnagiri, where research on various aspects of fisheries has been taken up.

THE FOLLOWING IS A LIST* OF FISHES FOUND IN THE RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Class : ELASMOBRANCHII.	
Sub-class : SELACHII.	
Order : LAMNIFORMES.	
Family : *Orectolobidae.*	
Chiloscyllium indicum (Gmelin.) .. .. = Day : *Chiloscyllium indicum*	*Sunera.*
Chiloscyllium griseum (Mull. & Hml.) ..	*Sunera.*
Family : *Carcharinidae.*	
Galeocerda cuvieri (Le Sueur.) .. .. = Day : *Galeocerdo tigrinus*	*Waghbeer.*
Scoliodon sorrakowah (Cuvier) .. .. = Day : *Garcharias laticaudus*	*Sonmushi.*
Eulamia melanoptera (Quoy and Gaimard) .. = Day : *Carcharias melanopterus*	*Balda.*
Eulamia limbatus (Muller and Henle) .. = Day : *Carcharias limbatus*	*Mushi.*
Family : *Sphyrnidae.*	
Sphyrna blochii (Cuvier) .. .. = Day : *Zygaena blochii*	*Kanmushi.*
Sphyrna tudes (Valenciennes) .. .. = Day : *Zygaena tudes*	*Kanmushi.*
Sphyrna zygaena (Linnaeus) .. .. = Day : *Zygaena malleus*	*Kanmushi.*
Order : RAJIFORMES.	
Family : *Rhinobatidae.*	
Rhynchobatus djiddensis (Forskal) .. .. = Day : *Rhynchobatus djiddensis*	*Lanj.*
Rhinobatos granulatus (Cuvier) .. .. = Day : *Rhinobatus granulatus*	*Ranja.*
Family : *Pristidae.*	
Pristis cuspidatus (Latham) .. .. = Day : *Pristis cuspidatus*	*Nali.*

* The list has been prepared by Curator, Marine Biological Research Station, Ratnagiri.

CHAPTER 1. Physical Features. Fish. Common Species found.

Scientific Name	Vernacular Name
Family : Trygonidae.	
Gymnura poesilura (Shaw) .. .. = Day : *Pteroplatea micrura*	*Pakat.*
Pastinachus sephen (Forskal) .. .. = Day : *Trygon sephen*	*Pakat.*
Amphotistius zugei (Muller and Henle) .. = Day : *Trygon bleekeri*	*Pakat.*
Himantura uarnak (Forskal)	*Vaghya Pakat.*
Family : Myliobatidae.	
Aetobatus narinari (Euphrasen) .. .. = Day : *Aetobatis narinari*	*Bolad.*
Aetomylaeus nichofii (Bloch & Schneider) .. = Day : *Myliobatis neiuhofii*	*Bolad.*
Aetomylaeus maculatus (Gray) .. .. = Day · *Myliobatis maculata*	*Waghali.*
Family : Mobulidae.	
Mobula diabolus (Shaw) .. .. = Day : *Dicerobatis eregodoo*	*Bolad.*
Order : TORPEDINIFORMES.	
Family : Torpedinidae.	
Narke dipterygia (Bloch and Schneider) B .. = Day : *Astrape dipterygia*	*Bijali.*
Class : TELEOSOTOMI.	
Sub-class : ACTINOPTERYGII.	
Order : CLUPEIFORMES.	
Family : Elopidae.	
Elops machnata (Forskal) .. .. = Day : *Elops saurus*	....
Megalops cyprinoides (Broussonet) .. = Day : *Megalops cyprinoides*	*Chirai.*
Family : Clupeidae.	
Kowala coval (Cuvier) .. .. = Day : *Clupea lile*	*Bhiljee.*
Tenualosa sinensis (Linnaeus) .. .. = Day : *Clupea toli*	*Bhing.*
Tenualosa ilisha (Hamilton Buchanan) .. = Day : *Clupea Ilisha*	*Palla.*

CHAPTER I.

Physical Features.

Fish.

Common Species found.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Sardinella longiceps (Valenciennes) = Day : *Clupea longiceps*	*Tarli, Hald.*
Sardinella fimbriata (Valenciennes) = Day : *Clupea fimbriata*	*Pedwa.*
Sardinella dayi (Regan.) = Day : *Clupea dayi*	....
Sardinella sindensis (Day) = Day : *Clupea sindensis*	....
Euplatygaster indica (Swainson) = Day : *Pellona indica*	*Gubar.*
Opisthopterus tordonre (Cuvier) = Day : *Opisthopterus tartoor*	*Paturda.*

Family : Dussumieridae.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Dussumieria acuta (Valenciennes) = Day : *Dussumieria acuta*	*Toak.*
Dussumieria hasselti (Bleeker) = Day : *Dussumieria hasselti*	*Toak.*

Family : Engraulidae.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Coilia dussmieri (Cuvier and Valenciennes) = Day : *Coilia dussumieri*	*Mandeli.*
Thrissocles malabarica (Bloch) = Day : *Engraulis malabaricus*	*Kati.*
Thrissocles mystax (Bloch and Schneider) = Day : *Engraulis mystax*	*Dandetar.*
Thrissocles setirostris (Broussonet) = Day . *Engraulis setirostris.*	*Dandetar.*
Thrissocles dussmieri (Valenciennes) = Day : *Engraulis dussmieri*	*Kati.*
Thrissocles purava (Hamilton) = Day : *Engraulis purava*	*Kaval.*
Anchoviella tri (Bleeker) = Day : *Engraulis tri*	*Dindas*

Family : Chirocentridae.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Chirocentrus dorab (Forskal) = Day : *Chirocentrus dorab*	*Karli.*

Order : SCOPELIFORMES.

Family : Synodontidae.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Trachinocephalus myops (Bloch and Schneider). = Day : *Saurus mypos*	*Chor-Bombil*

CHAPTER 1.

Physical Features.

FISH.

Common Species found.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Saurida tumbli (Bloch) .. .. = Day : *Saurida tumbli*	*Chor-Bombil.*
Harpodon nehereus (Hamilton and Buchanan). = Day : *Harpodon nehereus*	*Bombil.*

Order : CYPRINIFORMES.

Sub-order : SILUROIDEI.

Family : Plotosidae.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Plotosus anguillaris (Bloch) .. .. = Day : *Plotosus arab*	*Nar Shingali.*
Plotosus canius (Hamilton and Buchanan) .. = Day : *Plotosus canius*	*Nar Shingali.*

Family : Tachysuridae.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Osteogeneiosus militaris (Linnaeus) .. .. = Day : *Osteogeniosus militaris.*	*Shingala.*
Tachysurus sumatranus (Bennett) .. .. = Day : *Arius sumatranus*	*Shingala.*
Tachysurus caelatus (Valenciennes) .. .. = Day : *Arius caelatus*	*Shingala.*
Tachysurus nenga (Hamilton) .. .. = Day : *Arius nenga*	*Shingala.*
Netuma thalassinus (Ruppell) .. .. = Day : *Arius thalassinus*	*Shingala.*
Netma seratus (Day) .. .. = Day : *Arius serratus*	*Shingala.*
Ariodes dussumieri (Valenciennes) .. .. = Day : *Arius dussumieri*	*Shingala.*
Pseudarius jella (Day) .. .. = Day : *Arius jella*	*Shingula.*
Hexanematichthys sona (Hamilton) .. .. = Day : *Arius sagot*	*Shingala.*

Order : ANGUILLIFORMES.

Family : Muraenidae.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Gymnothorax pseudothyrsoidea (Bleeker) .. = Day : *Muraena pseudothyrsoidea*	*Kilis.*

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Family : *Murcenesocidae.*	
Muraenosox talabonoides (Bleeker) .. .. = Day : *Muraenosox talabonoides*	*Wam.*
Family : *Congridae.*	
Ariosoma anago (Schlegal) .. .. = Day : *Congromuraens anago*	....
Uroconger lepturus (Richardson) .. .. = Day : *Uroconger lepturus*	....
Family : *Ophichthyidae.*	
Ophichthys boro (Hamilton and Buchanan) .. = Day : *Ophichthys boro*	*Munderi.*
Order : BELONIFORMES.	
Family : *Belonidae.*	
Thalassosteus appendiculatus (Klunzinger) ..	....
Tylosurus strongylurus (Van Hasselt) .. = Day : *Belone strongylurus*	*Tali.*
Tylosurus choram (Forskal) .. .. = Day : *Belone choram*	*Tali.*
Family : *Hemirhamphidae.*	
Hyporhamphus xanthopterus (Valenciennes) .. = Day : *Hemirhamphus xanthapterus*	*Sumb.*
Hyporchmphus gaimardi (Valenciennes) .. = Day : *Hemirhamphus limbatus*	*Sumb.*
Hemirhamphus cantori (Bleeker) .. .. = Day : *Hemirhamphus cantori*	*Sumb.*
Hemirhamphus leucopterus (Cuvier and Valenciennes). .. .. = Day : *Hemirhamphus leucopterus*	*Sumb.*
Family : *Exocoetidae.*	
Cypselurus poecilopterus (Cuvier and Valenciennes). .. .. = Day : *Exocoetus poecilopterus*	*Pakharu.*
Order : GADIFORMES.	
Family : *Gadidae.*	
Asthenurus atripinnis (Tickell) .. .. = Day : *Bregmaceros atripinnis*	....

Scientific Name.			Vernacular Name.
Order : SYGNATHIEORMES.			
Sub-order : AULOSTOMOIDEL			
Family : *Fistularidae.*			
Fistularia villosa (Klunzinger) = Day : *Fistularia serrata.*	..	..	....
Sub-order : SYNGNATHOIDEI.			
Family : *Syngnathidae.*			
Hippocampus trimaculatus (Leach) = Day : *Hippocampus trimaculatus.*	..	..	*Ghoda Masa.*
Hippocampus kuda (Bleeker) = Day : *Hippocampus guttulatus*	..	..	*Ghoda Masa.*
Syngnathus intermedius (Kaup) = Day : *Syngnathus intermedius*	..	..	....
Order : CYPRINODONTIFORMES.			
Family : *Cyprinodontidae.*			
Panchax lineatus dayi (Steindachner) = Day : *Haplochilus lineatus*	..	..	*Piku.*
Order : BERYCIFORMES.			
Family : *Holocentridae.*			
Holocentrus rubrum (Forskal) = Day : *Holocentrum rubrum*	..	..	....
Order : MUGILIEORMES.			
Family : *Sphyraenidae.*			
Sphyraena jello (Cuvier) = Day : *Sphyraena jello*	..	..	*Badvi.*
Family : *Mugilidae.*			
Mugil kelaartii (Gunther) = Day : *Mugil kelaartii*	..	..	*Boi.*
Liza waigiensis (Quoy and Gaimard) = Day : *Mugil waigiensis*		..	*Boi.*
Mugil carinatus (Cuvier and Valenciennes) = Day : *Mugil carinatus*		.	*Boi.*
Mugil cunnesius (Cuvier and Valenciennes) = Day : *Mugil cunnesius*		..	*Boi.*
Mugil cephalus (Linnaeus) =Day : *Mugil oeur.*	..	..	*Boi.*
Mugil speigleri (Bleeker) = Day : *Mugil speigleri*	..	..	*Boi.*

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Family : Atherinidae.	
Allanetia forskali (Ruppell) .. .. = Day : *Atherina forskalii*	....
Order : POLUNEMIFORMES.	
Family : Polynemidae.	
Polynemus heptadactylus (Cuvier) .. .. = Day : *Polynemus heptadactylus*	....
Polynemus sextarius (Bloch) .. .. =Day : *Polynemus sextarius*	....
Polynemus plebeius (Broussonet) .. .. = Day : *Polynemus plebeius*	....
Eleutheronema tetradactylum (Shaw) .. = Day : *Polynemus tetradactylus*	*Rawas.*
Order : PERCIFORMES.	
Sub-order : PERCOIDEI.	
Family : Latidae.	
Lates calcarifer (Bloch) .. .. = Day : *Lates calcarifer*	*Jitada*
Family : Ambassidae.	
Ambassis commersoni (Cuvier) .. .. = Day . *Ambassis commersoni*	*Kachki.*
Family : Serranidae.	
Promicrops lanceolatus (Bloch) .. .. = Day : *Serranus lanceolatus*	*Gobra.*
Epinephelus dicanthus (Valencinnes) .. .. = Day : *Serranus dicanthus*	*Gobra.*
Epinephelus malabaricus (Schneider) . .. = Day : *Serranus malabaricus.*	*Gobra.*
Epinephelus maculatus (Bloch) .. .. = Day : *Serranus maculatus*	*Gobra.*
Epinephelus undulosus (Quoy and Gaimard) .. = Day : *Serranus undulosus*	*Gobra.*
Ephinephelus boenack (Bloch) .. .. = Day : *Serranus boenack*	*Gobra.*
Epinephelus tauvina (Forskal) .. .. = Day : *Serranus salmoides*	*Gobra.*

Scientific Name.			Vernacular Name.
Family : *Theraponidae.*			
Therapon jarbua (Forskal) = Day : *Therapon jarbua*	..	..	*Naveri.*
Autisthes puta (Cuvier) = Day : *Therapon puta*	..	..	*Naveri.*
Eutherapon theraps (Cuvier) = Day : *Therapon theraps*	..	..	*Daddada.*
Family : *Priacanthidae.*			
Priacanthus hamrur (Forskal)	..	..	....
Family : *Apogonidae.*			
Apogon fasciatus (White) = Day : *Apogon fasciatus*	..	..	*Kombada.*
Apogon frenatus (Valenciennes) = Day : *Apogon frenatus*	..	..	*Kombada.*
Archamia macropterus (Cuvier and Valenciennes). = Day : *Apogon macropterus*			*Kombada.*
Apogon kalasoma (Bleeker) = Day : *Apogon kalasoma*	..	..	*Kombada.*
Family : *Sillaginidae.*			
Sillago sihama (Forskal) = Day : *Sillago sihama*	..	..	*Renvi.*
Family : *Lactariidae.*			
Lactarius lactarius (Schneider) = Day : *Lactarius delicatulus*	..	..	*Sundala.*
Family : *Carangidae.*			
Magalaspis cordyla (Linnaeus) = Day : *Caranx rottleri.*	..	..	*Katkata Bangada.*
Atropus atropus (Bloch) = Day : *Caranx atropus*	..	..	*Kat Bangada.*
Selar kalla (Cuvier) = Day : *Caranx kalla*	..	..	*Kat Bangada.*
Selar mate (Cuvier) = Day : *Caranx affinis*	..	..	*Kat Bangada.*
Selar djeddaba (Forskal) = Day : *Caranx djeddaba*	..	..	*Shitap.*
Carangoides malabaricus (Bloch) = Day : *Caranx malabaricus*	..	..	*Shitap.*
Caranx melampygus (Cuvier) = Day : *Caranx melampygus*	..	..	*Shitap.*

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Caranx carangus (Bloch) .. .. = Day : *Caranx carangus*	*Shitap.*
Decaterus russelli (Ruppell) .. .. = Day : *Caranx kurra*	*Shitap.*
Chorinemus lysan (Forskal) .. .. = Day : *Chorinemus lysan*	*Dogal.*
Chorinemus tol (Cuvier) .. .. = Day : *Chorinemus moadetta*	*Dogal.*
Chorinemus tala (Cuvier) .. .. = Day : *Chorinemus taloo*	*Dogal.*
Trachinotus blochi (Lacepede) .. .. = Day : *Trachynotus ovatus*	*Lodgoo.*
Trachinotus bailloni (Lacepede) .. .. = Day : *Trachynotus bailloni*	*Lodgoo.*
Zonichthys nigrofasciata (Ruppell) .. .. = Day : *Sriola nigrofasciata*	....
Seriolichthys nipinnulatus (Quoy and Caimard) .. = Day : *Seriolichthys bipinnulatus*	....

Family : *Rachycentridae.*

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Rachycentron canadus (Linnacus) . .. = Day : *Elacate nigra*	*Modusa.*

Family : *Menidae.*

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Mene maculata (Bloch) .. .. = Day : *Mene maculata*	*Chand.*

Family : *Lutianidae.*

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
LUTIANUS JOHNI (Bloch) . .. = Day : *Lutianus johnii*	*Chavri Tamb.*
Lutianus arentimaculatus (Forskal) .. .. = Day : *Lutianus argentimaculatus*	*Tamb.*
Lutianus rivulatus (Cuvier) .. .. = Day : *Lutianus rivulatus*	*Tamb.*
Lutianus chrysotaenia (Bleeker) .. .. = Day : *Lutianus chrysotaenia*	*Tamb.*
Lutianus quinquilineatus (Bloch) . .. = Day : *Lutianus quinquilineatus*	*Tamb.*
Lutianus roseus (Day)	*Tambusa.*

Family : *Nemipteridae.*

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Nemipterus japonicus (Bloch) .. .. = Day : *Sunagris japonicus*	*Bamni.*

CHAPTER 1.

Natural Resources.
FISH.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Family : Gerridae.	
Gerremorpha setifer (Hamilton-Buchanan) = Day : *Gerres setifer*	.. *Charbat.*
Pertica filamentosa (Cuvier) .. = Day : *Gerres filamentosus*	.. *Charbat.*
Gerres abbreviatus (Bleeker) .. = Day : *Gerres abbreviatus*	.. *Charbat.*
Family : Leiogmathidae.	
Secutor insidiator (Bloch) .. = Day : *Equula insidiatrix*	.. *Kap.*
Leiognathus brevirostris (Valenciennes) = Day : *Equula blochii*	.. *Kap.*
Leiognathus bindus (Valenciennes) .. =Day : *Equula bindus*	.. *Kap.*
Leiognathus fasciatus (Lacepede) .. = Day : *Equula fasciata*	.. *Kap.*
Family : Pomadasyidae.	
Pomadasys maculatus (Bloch) .. = Day : *Pristipoma maculatum*	.. *Karkara.*
Pomadasys hasta (Bloch) .. = Day : *Pristipoma hasta*	.. *Karkara.*
Family : Plectorhynchidae.	
Pseudopristipoma nigra (Cuvier) .. = Day : *Diagramma Crassispium*	.. *Harvil.*
Spilotichthys puctus (Thunberg) .. = Day : *Diagramma pictus*	.. *Harvil.*
Family : Sciaenidae.	
Johnius dussumieri (Cuvier) .. = Day : *Sciacna glaucus*	.. *Dhoma.*
Johnius diacanthus (Lacepede) .. = Day : *Sciaena diacanthus*	.. *Ghal.*
Johnius sina (Cuvier) .. = Day : *Sciaena sina*	.. *Ghal.*
Otolithus argenteus (Cuvier) = Day : *Otolithus argenteus*	.. *Dhoma, Dhodi.*
Otolithus ruber (Schneider) .. = Day : *Otolithus ruber*	.. *Dhoma.*
Otolithoides brunneus (Day) .. = Day : *Sciaenoides brunneus*	.. *Koth.*

Scientific Name.		Vernacular Name.
Family : Sparidae.		
Argyrops spinifer (Forskal) =Day : *Pagrus spinifer*	.. ..	....
Rhabdosargus sarba (Forskal) =Day : *Chrysophrys Sarba*	.. ..	*Palu.*
Acanthopagrus berda (Forskal) =Day : *Chrysophrys berda*	.. ..	*Khadak Palu.*
Family : Mullidae.		
Upeneus sulphureus (Cuvier) =Day : *Upeneoides sulphureus*	.. ..	*Chiri.*
Family : Pempheridae.		
Pempheris moluca (Cuvier) =Day : *Pemheris moluca*	.. ..	*Kombada*
Family : Ephippidae.		
Ephippus orbis (Bloch) =Day : *Ephippus orbis*	.. ..	*Chand.*
Family : Platacidae.		
Platax teira (Forskal) =Day : *Platax teira*	.. ..	*Kawala.*
Family : Drepanidae.		
Drepane punctata (Linnaeus) =Day : *Drepane punctata*	.. ..	*Chand.*
Family : Scatophagidae.		
Scatophagus argus (Linnaeus) =Day : *Scatophagus argus*	.. .	*Wada.*
Family : Pomacanthidae.		
Pomacanthodes annularis (Bloch) =Day : *Holocanthus annularis*	.. ..	*Chand.*
Pomacanthodes nicobariensis (Bloch and Schneidar). =Day : *Holocanthus nicobariensis*	.. ..	*Chand.*
Family : Chaetodontidae.		
Heniochus acuminatus (Linnaeus) =Day : *Heniochus macrolepidotus*	.. ..	....
Linophora auriga (Forskal) =Day : *Chaetodon auriga*	.. ..	*Chandwa.*

CHAPTER 1. — Natural Resources. FISH.

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Linophora vagabunda (Linnaeus)	*Chandwa.*
= Day : *Chaetodon pictus*	
Chaetodontops collaris (Bloch)	*Chandwa.*
= Day : *Chaetodon collaris*	

Family : *Cichlidae.*

Etoplus suratensis (Bloch)	*Kalundar.*
= Day : *Etroplus suratensis*	

Family : *Pomacentridae.*

Abudefduf saxatilis vaigiensis (Quoy and Gaimard).	*Kavandal.*
= Day : *Glyphidodon caelestinus*	
Abudefduf leucopleura (Day)	*Kavandal.*
= Day : *Glyphidodon leucopleura*	

Family : *Labridae.*

Platyglossus dussumieri (Cuvier and Valenciennes).	*Popat.*
= Day : *Platyglossus dussumieri*	
Labroides dimidiatus (Cuvier and Valenciennes).	....
= Day : *Labroides dimidiatus*	

Sub-order : BLENNIOIDEI.

Family : *Blenniidae.*

PETROSCIRTES punctatus (Cuvier and Velenciennes).	....
= Day : *Petroscirtes punctatus*	
Istiblennius dussumieri (Cuvier and Valenciennes).	....
= Day : *Salarius dussumieri*	

Sub-order : CALLIONYMIDEI.

Family : *Callionymidae.*

Callionymus sagitta (Pallas)	....
= Day : *Callionymus agitta*	

Sub-order : SIGANOIDEI.

Family : *Siganidae.*

Siganus oramin (Bloch and Schneider) ..	*Mutri.*
= Day : *Teuthis cramin*	
Siganus vermiculatus (Valenciennes) ..	*Thaus, Kuwar.*
= Day : *Teuthis vermiculatus*	

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Siganus margaritifera (Cuvier and Valenciennes). = Day : *Teuthis margaritifera*	....
Siganus marmorata (Quoy and Gaimard) .. = Day : *Teuthis marmorata*	*Dhagvir.*
Sub-order : ACANTHUROIDEI	
Family : *Acanthuridae.*	
Acanthurus gahm (Forskal) .. .. = Day : *Acanthurus mata*	*Suraiya.*
Sub-order : THICHIUROIDEI.	
Family : *Trichicuridae.*	
Thichiurus savala (Cuvier) .. .. = Day : *Trichiurus savala*	*Wagti.*
Trichiurus haumela (Forskal) .. .. = Day : *Trichiurus hammela*	*Bala.*
Sub-order : SCOMBROIDEI.	
Family : *Scombridae.*	
Rastrelliger kanagurta (Cuvier) .. . = Day : *Scomber microlepidotus*	*Bangda.*
Family : *Katsuwonidae.*	
Auxis thazard (Lacepede)	*Gedri.*
Euthynnus affinis (Cantor) .. .. = Day : *Thynnus thunnina*	*Bibbya Gedar.*
Family : *Thunnidae.*	
Neothunnus macropterus (Schlegel). .. .. = Day · *Thynnus macropterus*	*Khavlya Gedar.*
Family : *Scomberomoridae.*	
Cybium commersoni (Lacepede) .. .. = Day : *Cybium commersonii*	*Surmai, Towar Iswan.*
Indocybium guttatum (Bloch and Schneider) .. = Day : *Cybium guttatum*	*Surmai, Towar Iswan.*
Family : *Histiophoridae.*	
Histiophorus gladius (Broussonet) .. .. = Day : *Histiophorus gladius*	*Tadmasa.*

CHAPTER 1.

Natural Resources.

FISH.

Scientific Name.		Vernacular Name.

Sub-order : STROMATEOIDEI.

Family : Stromateidae.

Pampus argentus (Euphrasen) .. .. *Paplet.*
= Day : *Stromateus cinereus*

Pampus chinensis (Euphrasen) .. .. *Halwa.*
= Day : *Stromateus sinensis*

Parastromateus niger (Bloch) .. .. *Saranga.*
= Day : *Stromateus niger*

Sub-order : GOBIOIDEI.

Family : Eleotridae.

Butis butis (Hamilton-Buchanan) .. ..
= Day : *Eleotris amboinensis.*

Family : Gobiidae.

Glossogobius giuris (Hamilton and Buchanan) .. *Kharbi.*
= Day : *Gobius giuris*

Acentrogobius viridipunctatus (Valenciennes) .. ....
= Day : *Gobius viridipunctatus*

Gobius criniger (Cuvier and Valenciennes) .. ....
= Day : *Gobius criniger*

Acentrogobius neilli (Day) .. ..

Awaous stamineus (Valenciennes) .. ..
= Day : *Gobius striatus*

Parachaeturichthys ocellatus (Day) .. ..
= Day : *Gobius ocellatus*

Family : Periophthalmidae.

Periophthalmodon schlosseri (Pallas) .. ..
= Day : *Periophthalmus schlosseri*

Family : Trypauchenidae.

Trypauchen vagina (Bloch and Schneider) .. ....
= Day : *Trypauchon vagina*

Sub-order : COTTOIDEI.

Family : Scorpaenidae.

Pterois russelli (Bennett) .. .. *Kombada.*
= Day : *Pterois russellii*

Scorpaenopsis roseus (Day) .. .. *Kombada.*
= Day : *Scorpaenopsis rosea*

Scorpaenopsis cirhosus (Thenberg) .. .. *Kombada.*
= Day : *Scorpaenopsis oxycephala*

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.
Family : *Platycephalidae.*	
Suggrundus macracanthus (Bleeker)	*Mench.*
= Day : *Platycephalus macracanthus*	
Thysanophrys crocodilus (Tilesius)	*Mench.*
= Day : *Platycephalus punctatus*	
Order : PLEURONECTIFORMES.	
Family : *Psettodidae.*	
Psettodes erumei (Bloch)	*Bhakas.*
= Day : *Pesttodes erumei*	
Family : *Bothidae.*	
Pseudorhombus triocellatus (Bloch)	*Lep.*
= Day : *Pseudorhombus triocellatus*	
Pseudorhombus arsius (Hamilton and Buchanan).	*Lep.*
= Day : *Pseudorhombus arsius*	
Family : *Soleidae.*	
Zabrias quagga (Kaup)	*Lep.*
= Day : *Synaptura zebra*	
Solea ovata (Richardson)	*Lep.*
= Day : *Solea ovata*	
Family : *Cynoglossidae.*	
Paraplagusia bilineata (Bloch)	*Lep.*
= Day : *Palgusia mamorata*	
Cynoglossus brachycephalus (Bleeker) ..	*Lep.*
= Day : *Cynoglossus brevirostris*	
Cynoglossus brevis (Gunther)	*Lep.*
= Day : *Cynoglossus brevis*	
Cynoglossus semifasciatus (Day)	*Lep.*
= Day : *Cynoglossus semifascitus*	
Cynoglossus lingua (Hamilton-Buchanan) ..	*Lep.*
= Day : *Cynoglossus lingua*	
Cynoglossus dispar · Day	*Lep.*
Order : MASTACEMBELIFORMES.	
Family : *Mastacembelidae.*	
Mastacembelus armatus (Lacepede)	*Ahir.*
= Day : *Mastacembelus armatus*	

Scientific Name.	Vernacular Name.

Order : ECHENEIFORMES.

Family : *Echeneidae.*

Echeneis naucrates (Linnaeus) .. .. *Lachuk.*
= Day : *Echeneis naucrates*

Order : TETRADONTIFORMES.

Sub-order : BALISTOIDEI.

Family : *Triacanthidae.*

Triacanthus brevirostris (Schlegal) .. .. *Bail.*
= Day : *Triacanthus brevirostris*

Family : *Aluteridae.*

Paramonacanthus choirocephalus (Bleeker) .. ....
= Day : *Monacanthus choerocephalus*

Sub-order : OSTRACIODEI.

Family : *Ostraciontidae.*

Lactoria cornuta (Linnaeus) .. .. *Gai.*
= Day : *Ostracion cornutus*

Sub-order : TETRADONTOIDEI.

Family : *Lagocephalidae.*

Torquigener oblongus (Bloch) .. .. *Kend.*
= Day : *Tetrodon oblongus*

Gastrophysus Lunaris (Bloch) .. .. *Kend.*
= Day : *Tetrodon lunaris*

Family : *Tetraodontidae.*

Chelonodon patoca (Hamilton and Buchanan) .. *Kend.*
= Day : *Tetrodon patoca*

Arothron immaculatus (Bloch) .. .. *Kend.*
= Day : *Tetrodon immaculatus*

Order : BATRACHOIDIFORMES.

Family : *Batrachoididae.*

Batrachus grunniens (Linnaeus) .. .. *Gongcha.*
= Day : *Batrachus grunniens*

CHAPTER 1.

Natural Resources.

SNAKES.

SNAKES* : This district of Maharashtra State extends into a region which is mountainous on one side and runs into sea from the other. In the sea side area there are extensive sandy places with stones. The local people use these stones as hedges by heaping them loosely one on the other. The rainfall is heavy and the soil at many places is reddish. All these factors have contributed to the growth of certain varieties of snakes in very large numbers in this area.

In fact the statistics collected by the Director of Public Health have revealed that the number of people dying in this district due to snake-bites for 1956, 1957 and 1958 was the highest in the whole of the then Bombay State, coming to 136, 148, 166, respectively. The mortality due to snake-bites in previous years also indicates that more people died in this district than in others. Previously, Government spent a certain amount of money in destroying snakes such as the saw-scaled viper which is predominant in this area.

There is a record that as many as 140,828 *echis* were killed in 1877 for collecting rewards offered by Government at the rate of annas 2 per snake. Even now the maximum number of *echis carinatus*, locally called *Phoorsa* snakes, are available mostly from this district. During the collection of snakes made recently for scientific purposes as many as 2,000 snakes of this variety could be collected within a period of 20 days in an area of 20 miles in Deogad taluka of the Ratnagiri district. The local farmers collect these snakes by bamboo-forceps and bring them for sale. During the rainy season many cases of snake-bite particularly by these snakes are encountered. The largest collection of these snakes is made primarily from Deogad taluka of Ratnagiri district. The maximum temperature of Deogad goes to 90°F. and humidity up to 94. The minimum temperature does not go beyond 68°F. These factors are responsible for the growth of snakes of this species.

Family : *Colubridae.*

Non-poisonous.

This family is represented by *Eryx conicus*, *Eryx Johnii* and *Python molurus*.

Eryx conicus.—This short snake with a blunt tail is found all over the district. It is locally called *Dutondya*. There are brown irregular patches on a grey body. This snake is very sluggish and grows to about two and a half feet. It feeds on frogs, lizards and mites and is absolutely harmless. It may be mistaken to be the young one of a python. The latter is pink and is much thicker with a fine tapering tail.

Eryx Johnii has no patches and is blackish in colour. This is slightly longer than *Eryx conicus* and stays more or less submerged in soil. This is also a harmless snake.

---

* The section on "Snakes" was contributed by Dr. P. J. Deoras of the Haffkine Institute, Bombay.

CHAPTER 1. — Natural Resources. SNAKES.

Python molurus.—This snake is called *ajgar* by local people and is found in the forests. It grows to fourteen feet in length. There are brown patches on a grey body with a pink head and faint brown lower sides. It is an omnivorous snake which feeds on anything living which it kills by constriction.

Family : Colubridae.

Oligodon sp.—This brown snake with thick, pale cross bars on the body is found near human habitations and in gardens. It is often mistaken to be a krait. This is a harmless snake and it feeds on insects and frogs.

Lycodon aulicus.—This wolf snake is quite common all over the district. It grows to about two feet and is also mistaken for a krait. It is a harmless snake, having brown colour with whitish cross bars.

Natrix piscator.—This snake is locally known as "*Pandiwad*". It is a checkered green-black snake which is of olive colour with black irregular markings. It is found in muddy places.

Ptyas mucosus.—This is locally known as "*Dhaman*". It is a long snake growing to about nine feet and is seen all over the district. There are big yellowish brown marks all over the body and also in the tail region and at the sides. This snake is harmless but is often mistaken to be a poisonous snake. This snake brings down the population of rats and as such it is also called a rat-snake.

Natrix stoleta.—This snake is found more after the rains. It does not grow more than three feet and has brown and black longitudinal stripes. It can be handled with ease and many people keep this snake as a pet. It is absolutely harmless.

Dryophis nasutus.—This parrot green snake growing to about five feet in length and having a very pointed head is locally known as '*sarpatoli*'. It has the peculiar habit of staying amidst vegetation and keeping a raised head. It should not be mistaken with the tree viper. The latter has a deeper green colour, a triangular head, is much thicker and smaller in size than this snake.

Boiga gokool.—This is the cat snake which is prevalent in the area of low lying forests. This snake is yellowish above with a series of vertical bars on each side separated from one another by a light vertical line. The head has a large arrow shaped black edged mark. It grows to four feet and is very much feared though it is a non-poisonous snake. *Biago forstens* is also found in this region.

Cereberus sp.—This species is found in the coastal area of the district.

Family : *Elapidae*.

Poisonous.

Nungaurs coerulus.—This common krait which is locally known as "*Manyar*" is met with at the bottom of the foot-hills. In this region this snake does not grow more than about three feet. It is steel blue with white double cross bars over the body. It is a very poisonous snake and the venom is neurotoxic.

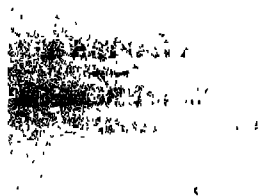
Callophis mellenurus.—This may be found in the areas adjoining Goa and Karwar. It is light brown with deep brown scales and light longitudinal lines all over the body.

Naja naja.—Cobras are common all over the district. Both the binocellate and no mark varieties are seen in this district. Brownish and blackish varieties are found all over the district. This snake can never be mistaken. It is worshipped because of its frightful colouration and the hood as well as the poison. It is quite a deadly snake and the poison is neurotoxic.

Family : *Viperidae*.

Vipera russelli.—This snake is locally called "*Ghonas*" or "*Kandar*". It is a brown snake having three rows of deep brown white ringed marks on the dorsal side. It hisses loudly and its sound could be heard from a very long distance. The poison of this snake is vasotoxic and the bite is pretty painful.

Echis carinatus.—It is locally called "*Phoorsa*" Ratnagiri district and particularly Deogad taluka is the reservoir of these small snakes. The maximum length encountered in this area is 19". It is a brownish snake with diamond shaped deep brown marks all over the body in different patterns. The head bears a whitish arrow mark. The scales beyond the head and the side are serrate. It often sits forming the figure of '8' and makes a sound by rubbing the scales. It grows to about ten inches in length and often strikes while one is moving near about. The poison of this snake is vasotoxic.

The maximum number of snake-bites in the district are due to this snake alone. The amount of poison given by this snake at a bite is less than the lethal dose. The victim does not, therefore, die immediately but the symptoms go on assuming a dangerous shape. In about three days the wound would grow to an unusual shape and the person may start bleeding from all over the body. The death is not due exactly to the poisoning but to the secondary symptoms which develop later on. In Deogad taluka this snake is frequently found all over the area under stones and in the hedges which are made up of stones. It feeds on small lizards, scorpions and a majority of insects found nearby.

PART II

CHAPTER 2—HISTORY.*

CHAPTER 2.

History.
PROTO-HISTORY.

The antiquity of human life in South India goes back to about 3,00,000 years; but for quite a long time man lived at what is known as the "old stone" (Paleolithic) stage, using only crude stone implements and able only to gather his food as he found it, instead of growing it according to his needs. In India, it is exceedingly difficult to reconstruct the Neolithic complex. But in spite of the rather wide gaps, spatial and chronological, Gordon Childe has suggested that "Sialk B (graves in Iran) might be used to link with the west, with the Caucasus or Palestine, the celebrated Indian dolmens; for these too may at least be entered through port-hole slabs." He adds "But they are concentrated in the south of the Peninsula in areas not likely to be affected by landborne impulses from Iran, but exposed rather to maritime influences. If their distribution does suggest inspiration from the west that must surely have come by sea[1].". It is in Mahārāshṭra that the megalithic iron-age civilization must have clashed with the southward movement of the first Aryan people to invade the Deccan[2].

EXTENT.

Ratnāgirī district forms part of the greater tract known as the Konkaṇ The tract is about 320 miles in length with a varying breadth of thirty to sixty miles and an area of 5020·9 square miles. It is composed of 15 talukas and mahals viz. Maṇḍangaḍ, Dāpoḷī, Kheḍ Chipḷūṇ, Guhāgar, Sangameshvar, Ratnāgiri, Rājāpūr, Devgad. Lāñjē. Mālvaṇ, Sāvantvāḍī, Veṅgurlē, Kuḍāḷ and Kaṇkavlī. This part, in early times had been a thinly inhabited forest from which character it has, till recently but partially emerged, "where beasts with man divided empire claimed[3]." Though this tract can scarcely be called historically famous, its long coast-line and convenient harbours, together with its comparative nearness to the Arabian coast, made it known to the earliest travellers, while the natural strength of the country and the character of its inhabitants gave it in later days, great importance than its wealth or extent would have justified.

---

1 Nilkanta Sastri, A history of South India, 50-51, 53.

2 Christopher von Furer-Haimendorf, "When, how and from where did the Dravidians come to India", India-Asian Culture, II No. 3, Jan. 1954, pp. 238-247 (245).

3 Bhandarkar R. G. "Early history of the Deccan"—translated in Marathi by N. V. Bapat (1887), p. 4.
Rev. A. Nairne, History of the Konkan (1894), xi.

* The Chapter on History was contributed by Prof. M. S. Agaskar, M.A., of R. R. College, Matunga, Bombay-19.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
EXTENT.

The word Koṅkaṇ is of Indian origin and of considerable antiquity, though the meaning, as the name of a country is not obvious and has never been sufficiently explained, even though various interpretations have been forwarded[1]. The seven kingdoms of the Koṅkaṇ of Hindu mythology are mentioned in a Hindu History of Kashmir[2], and are said to have included nearly the whole of the west coast of India, of which Ratnāgirī district forms a part. But the district thus known appears to have had very different limits at different periods.

According to the Sanskrit writers, the Koṅkaṇ stretched only from Devgaḍ to Sadāshivgaḍ – a distance altogether of only about 90 miles –; from Tāpī to Devgaḍ being Abhīr or the country of the shepherds[3]. The Abhīr country was further divided into Barbara or Mahratta, from the Tāpī to Bassein; Virāṭ, from Bassein to Bāṇkoṭ and Kirāṭ, from Bāṇkoṭ to Devgaḍ[4]. The earliest certain mention of the country now called Koṅkaṇ is in the geography of Ptolemy about A. D. 150 and in the Greek work called "The Periplus of the Erythræn Sea", the authorship of which is uncertain and the date variously calculated from A. D. 66 to A. D. 240[5]. Ptolemy divides Koṅkan into two provinces, Lārikā (Lātdes) which is identified with Gujarat and part of the North Koṅkaṇ, and Āriākā which includes the rest of the Koṅkaṇ incorporating the Ratnāgirī district[6]. Ferishta calls it Tal-ghāṭ and Khāfi Khān calls it Taḷ-Koṅkaṇ[7]. Āriākā included "the land of the pirates" and the pirates of Suvarnadurg are also mentioned by Strabo[8]. Āriākā territory ranged from Goa to Tāpī, obviously including the Ratnāgirī district and was subject to Tagārā[9].

---

[1] Nilkanta Sastri, A history of South India, 2, 45.
Chitgupi, Western Chalukyas of Vatapi, 2, 5.

[2] Rev. Nairne, Konkan, 1.

[3] Walter Hamilton, Description of Hindostan (1820), II, 183.

The map given by Dr. Moraes in Kadamba-kula, p. 16 refers to Abhīr and the other map on p. 193 calls Ratnāgirī district as Kapardikadvipa.

[4] J. Bird, the Political and Statistical History of Gujarat, p. 8 Bhandarkar, tran. Bapat, 99. (Tran. Persian of Ali Mohammad Khan) (1835).

[5] Rev. Nairne, Konkan, 1.

[6] Op. cit., 1; Bhandarkar (Bapat), 99.

[7] J. Briggs, Ferishta, II, 336.

[8] Rev. Nairne, Konkan, 1.

[9] Tagārā has been identified differently by different writers. Tagārā has been identified by Wilford with Devgiri or Daulatābād; ; Lassen and Yule place it doubtfully at Gulburgā; Paṇḍit Bhagvānlāl, at Junnar; Grant Duff, near Bhir and Bhandarkar maintains that Tagārā was probably the centre of one of the earliest settlements in the "Daṇḍakāraṇya" or "Front of Daṇḍka" as the Desh or Mahārāshṭra was called and suggests that it should be modern Darur or Dharur east of Bhir and 70 miles off Paiṭhaṇ–Nairne–Note pp. 16-17.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
EXTENT.

This district was specially known as Taḷ-Koṅkaṇ[1] and the district contained several places of trade known to the early European writers. The Veṅgurlē rocks are mentioned as islands of the southern extremity of Āriākā and are called Sesekrienai[2]. The name and position of Bāgmāṇḍlā may suggest the site of Māridāgorā, mentioned both by Ptolemy and in the Periplus[3]. Bāgmāṇḍlā and Kōlnāṇḍlā are the remains of Māndal or Māndan, an old trading place of some consequence. Barbosa (1514) has mentioned Mandabad whose position suggests identification with Bāṇkoṭ at the estuary of the Sāvitrī river, where many ships, especially, from Malabar, came taking stuffs and leaving cocoanuts, areca-nuts, a few spices, copper and quick-silver[4]. It seems possible that the Sāvitrī is Ptolemy's Nan-guna which in his map enters the Arabian sea within the Ratnāgiri limits[5]. Devgaḍ is mentioned as Arum[6] and Jaygaḍ[7] has been identified with Strabo's (B. C. 54—A. D. 24) Sigardis and with Pliny's (A. D. 77) Sigris, on the Koṅkaṇ coast, which was "one of chief ports of Western India". Ptolemy's Turannosboas is Rājāpūr[8] with Ptolemy's Melizeigeris, an island of the pirate coast and with the Melizeigara of the Periplus, it seems better to refer these names to the island, Jañjirā and town, Melī or Melundī, now known as Malvaṇ[9]. Cuhāgar was known to the Portuguese as the Bay of Brahmaṇs. It may perhaps be Ptolemy's Ārāmagāra or Brāmāgāra[10].

Dābhoḷ[11] would seem to be a settlement of a very great age, though the site of Dābhoḷ, a narrow strip of land between the river and very high steep hills, is ill-suited for a large town. According to a local saying Dābhoḷ once bore the name of Amrāvati or the abode of Gods. Beyond Māndābād, travelling along the coast towards India, is a right fair river, at the mouth of which is a great town of Moors

[1] Grant Duff, History of the Mahrattas, (1863), I, 5.

[2] Schoff, The Periplus of the Erythrean Sea, 44, 202.

[3] Schoff, 43, 201 ; Bhandarkar, (Bapat), 92.

[4] Bhandarkar, (Bapat), 92 ; Bom. Gaz. X, 319 ; Schoff, 201.

[5] Bom. Gaz. X, 320.

[6] Schoff, 43, 201

[7] *Ibid.*, Melizeigara is placed at Jaygaḍ by Mullar and McCrindle also ; Bhandarkar, (Bapat) 92.

[8] McCrindle puts it at the Modern Malvaṇ – Schoff, 43, 202, 258.

[9] Bhandarkar, (Bapat), 92 ; Nairne, Koṅkaṇ, 2.

[10] Bom. Gaz. X, 336.

[11] Palaepatmae of Ptolemy is identified as Dābhoḷ—Schoff, 43, 210. This is disputed—Bhandarkar, (Bapat), 92.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
EXTENT.

and Heathen, pertaining to the kingdom of Daquem, named Dābuḷ[1]. Within the mouth of the river there is a fortress with artillery for its defence. It has a very good harbour, whither sail many ships of the Moors from diverse lands, to wit, from Meca, Adem and Ormus (which bring hither many horses) and from Cambaya, Dio and Malabar, which constantly deal here in goods of every kind, with many very worthy merchants, of whom some in this land are of great wealth, as well Moors as Heathen. Hence they send inland great store of copper, also much quick-silver and vermilion dye; and from the inland regions great store of cloth comes down the river and is laden on the ships, also much wheat, grains[2] (probably millet), chick-peas and sundry other sorts of pulse[3]. Great sums of money are gathered in here at the custom-house; the dues are collected for the king by persons whom he entertains for that end. It is a fine and well-situated place; some of its houses are thatched with straw, and within on the river there are very fair mosques on both banks, where there are many beautiful villages. The land is well-tilled, rich and fertile, with good ploughing and breeding of cattle.

---

[1] Dābuḷ is the port properly called Dābhoḷ, which is in the collectorate of Ratnāgirī on the north bank of the estuary of the Vāsishṭhī River (also called the Añjanvel River from the small town of Añjanvel on the south bank). When Barbosa wrote it was the capital of the part of the North Koṅkaṇ which belonged to the "Ādilshāhī monarchy" (nominally under "the Deccan kingdom", i.e. the Bahamani kings of Bidar). This province extended from the Sāvitrī River (p. 164, n. 1) on the north to the River Linna on the south (p. 182, n. 1).

Dābhol, although a place of some local importance, omitted in many modern maps, and as Yule pointed out (Hobson-Jobson, s. v. Dābuḷ), it was confounded in Arrowsmith's map of 1816 with Dāpoli "twelve miles north and not seaport". It is less excusable that in such a recent production as the Bombay Census Report of 1911 the map gives Dāpoli but not Dābhoḷ.

It was a port of great antiquity, as has been with much probability identified with the Palæpatmæ of the Periplus and the Baltipatna of Ptolemy (Schoff's Periplus, p. 201; McCrindle's Ptolemy, p. 55). This name is supposed by Nanda Lal Dey to represent some such form as Paripatana, i.e., the port of Pari, (which is an ancient name of the West Vindhya mountains). The modern name is connected probably with Dābhileshvara, a name of the god Shiva. The form Dālbhesā is given in the *Saṅgameshvar, Mahātmya* quoted in V. N. Mandlik's article in *Journal Bombay Br. R. A. S.*, 1875, p. 100. From this form it would seem that the oldest form of the name was Dalabha, from which by metathesis Dābhoḷ is formed. It dates from the Chālukya period.

Dābhoḷ was found to be a flourishing port by the Portuguese, and is mentioned in the travels of Nikitin as a place of great trade about 1475. Its trade with East Africa, Arabia and Persia is alluded to by Barbosa in many places, but among the earlier Arab writers it had not the same fame as Chaul. Most travellers seem to have gone south to Goa or Sindāpūr, and to have touched at no port between Goa and Chaul.

[2] See p. 155, n. 4. If the word grain is read separately the meaning may be the great millet Holcus sorghum, see 64, p. 155, n. 3.

[3] *Aligume* stands here for the modern Portuguese *legume*, which denotes pulse of all kinds.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
EXTENT.
Dabhol.

The present name is said either to be a short form of Dābhilavatī, a name given to it from the still remaining temple of Shiva, Dābhileshvar or to be a corrupt form of Dābhyā, according to Purāṇās, a god-inhabited forest. Large remains, several feet underground, seem to show that Dābhoḷ was in very early times, a place of consequence. An underground temple of Chaṇḍikādevī is said to have been of the same age as the Badāmī Rock–Temples (A.D. 550-587)[1]. Chipḷūṇ, the home of the Konkaṇastha Brāhmaṇs, supplied with sixty ponds and sixty gardens by Parashurām, the reclaimer of Konkaṇ, has for long been a place of consequence[2]. C. Neibuher (1763) states that close to Bāṇkoṭ, was a very large rock-temple divided into 25 chambers[3]. Byzanteion was Vijaydurg[4]. The name of Betel River is merely a trade term given by the Portuguese. From its position, however, it may without hesitation be identified with Vijaydurg (16° 23′ N; 73° 20′ E), one of the best harbours on the west coast of India, which still gives shelter to large ships. It stands on the Vāghoṭaṇ river and has a strong fort.

Vijaydurg.

Vijaydurg is generally identified with the Byzanteion of Ptolemy and Periplus. Towards the end of the 17th century it was the headquarters of the private chief Āngre. It was taken by the English under Clive and Watson in 1756. Nitrias mentioned by Pliny as a chief station of the pirates. Rennell identifies with Nivti between Mālvaṇ and Veṇgurlē[5]. The river of Bāmdā, may with probability be identified with the estuary on which stands the modern town of Veṇgurlē (15° 52′ N; 73° 38′ E), still a considerable port with a population of 19,000 and trade in cocoanuts, coir, molasses, cashew, etc. It lies within the limits of the Ratnāgirī District. Bāndā in some modern maps is shown a short distance inland from Veṇgurlē, and in Ribero's map of 1529 it appears north of Goa, also Bāmdā in Dourado's map of 1570.

PROTO AND ANCIENT PERIOD.

Some of the Nordics, who had made their appearance in Asia Minor, about 2000 B. C. had accompanied the people who landed

[1] Mr. Crawford's MS. Bom. Gaz; X, 327 (1880).

[2] Bom As So Meeting, (Sept. 1879), Schoff, 201, (p. XXXV), Vol. XIV.

[3] A stone has been found at Chipḷūn bearing the date 1156 A. D. Ibid. Sanskrit inscription forwarded by P. Falla who found it in Chipḷūṇ.

[5] The surname of the Marāṭhā families of the district such as Kadam, More (Maurya), Sheḷke (Chālukyas), Pālav, Daḷvī and others show their connection with the old ruling houses.

[4] Schoff, 43, 201; Bhandarkar (Bapat) maintains otherwise, 92; Nairne, 2.

[5] Nairne, 2.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

EPIC PERIOD.

on the western coast of India[1]. The original limits of the inhabitants were the Sāvitrī in the north and the Devgaḍ river in the South[2].

The Pāṇḍavās, having performed their pilgrimage on the 13th year had settled in the adjoining territory of the Ratnāgirī district and when the Pāṇḍavās and the Kauravās had the famous war at Kurukshetra, the Rājā of this region, Veerat Rāy had accompanied

[1] This alone explains the colour of the eyes of the Chitpāvans of the Ratnāgirī district—The colour is greenish grey rather than blue—Dr. G. S. Ghurye, Caste and Race in India, 122.

Nilkanta Sastri, A history of South India, 58.

Walter Hamilton, Description of Hindostan, II, (1820), 184.

Chitgupi, Western Chalukyās of Vatapi, 21.

[2] Parashurām hill, near Chipḷūṇ is the headquarters of this Chitpāvan caste. These people in allusion to the story of their being sprung from corpses brought to life by Parashurām, nicknamed Chitpāvan or pure from the pyre or *chitā*. Turning this from a nickname into a title of honour, it means pure of heart or *chitta*. The local legend makes them strangers descended from fourteen shipwrecked corpses who were restored to life by Parashurām. Javal Brāhmans from Dāpolī take their name from being shipwrecked in a storm, *Javal*. The hill from which the Avatār is said to have shot his arrow is named after him, Parashurām and looks over the fertile and beautiful valley in which Chipḷūn stands. Of the sixty legendary ponds dug by Parashurām, the only traces left are eight reservoirs in various parts of the town of Chipḷūṇ, Rāmtīrth being prominent among them. The shenvis are found all over the district but chiefly in Mālvaṇ and Veṇgurlē and had Goā, as their original Koṅkaṇ settlement, where, they are said to have come at Parashurām's request from Trihotrā or Tirhut in northern India. Sangameshvar, the meeting of the Ālaknandā and Varuṇā is a place of some sanctity and of high antiquity. It was originally called Rāmkshetra and had temples built by Parashurām or Bhārgavrām. The story of Parashurām runs as follows :— Brāhmaṇs being reduced to cave life by the Kshatriyās, were restored by the 6th Avatār of Vishṇu, appearing under the form of the son of a Brāhman named, Jamadagnī. Parashurām's mother and the wife of the great Kshatriya king, Sahasrārjun, were sisters. The sage Jamadagni was poor and his wife was forced to do all the household duties with her own hands. One day, fetching water, she thought of her sister's grandeur and her own poverty; and as she was thus thinking the pitcher became empty. The sage asked her why her pitcher was empty and when she told him how the water had leaked away, he blamed her for thinking of her sister's state better than her own. She said, "If I want to ask my sister, there is hardly food for ten men.' "I have" the sage said, "food for ten thousand but I do not think it wise to call a Kshatriya to dinner". She pleaded that they should be asked and her sister and her husband came with a large following. From his wish-fulfilling cow and never-empty jar,' the sage satisfied the king and all his men. Learning the source of the sage's store of food, the king carried off the cow and the jar and killed the sage, forcing him to lie on a bed of pointed nails. Grieved with the result of her foolishness the sage's wife committed suicide. The orphaned Parashurām vowed vengeance on the Kshatriyās. Attacking them with his axe, Parashurām, broke their power, slew all who did not forfeit their birthright by mixing with the Shūdrās and gave the whole of their lands to Brāhmaṇs. Finding that he had left no land for himself, he prayed the sea, which then washed the Sahyādri cliffs, to cast him up a kingdom, the sea refused and Parashurām determined to drive it back. Standing on the Sahyādris he shot an arrow westward and before it, the sea retired. But the sea God had sent a friendly bee to bore Parashurām's bow string and the arrow fell short, reclaiming only a strip of about 40 miles broad Harivansh (Vishṇu Parva) Chap. 39, Verse 28; & chap. 40, verse, 39. Harivamsha is treated as a modern part of Mahābhārat.

them there[1]. Later, this part formed one of the three divisions of the great empire of the kings who had their Capital at Bidur. Rājā Bhīmsen was one of the most celebrated of this house and the history of the loves of his daughter and Rājā Naḷa, the king of Māḷvā are famous throughout the country[1].

The Chipḷūṇ and Kol caves show that about the beginning of the Christian era (B.C. 200 to A. D. 50), North Ratnāgirī had Buddhist settlements of some importance. The Buddhists had chosen Sālsette for one of their greatest monastic settlements and it is natural that in the other parts of the Koṅkaṇ, their cave temples are remarkable[2]. In the Ratnāgirī district there are caves at Chipḷūṇ, Kheḍ, Dābhoḷ, Saṅgameshvar, Gavhāṇī-Veḷgāum and Vade Padel. The Buddhist legends, in the Papanch-Sudani and Sarathappakasini record[3] the

[1] An inscription in Nāṇeghāṭ also records that the statute which stands there is of Yira who is called Maharathagranika, that is, the leader of the great heroes or the leador of the Marāṭhās. Bhandarkar maintains that Virben Abhir was the son of Damari and Shivdutta—Bhandarkar (Bapat), 99
Mahābhārat was translated from the original Sanskrit into Persian verse by Sheikh Abdul Fazl, the son of Sheikh Mubārak by order of Akbar, the emperor of Delhi. Mahomed Kasim Ferishta made abstracts of the work - Briggs, Ferishta, I, Lix.
Bakhle, 89 (for Karāḍ region).
In a passage in Mahābhārat, it is stated that Arjuna, after visiting the sanctuary of Pashupati at Gokurṇ, travelled to all the holy places in Aparāntha and following the coast, finally arrived in Prabhās, i.e. Verāvaḷ in south Kāṭhiāvār. The further pilgrimage in this district is referred to as :—" After Yudhishṭhira had seen these and other holy places, one after another, the wish-granted one saw the very holy Shārparakā (sopārā; Then crossing a narrow belt of sea (the Bassein creek) he came to a world-famed forest, where, in times of yore, gods had done penance and kings sacrificed to gain religious merit. Here the long and sturdy-armed one saw the altar of the son of Richika, foremost among bowmen, surrendered by crowds of ascetics and worthy of worship by the virtuous. There he saw the charming and holy temples of Vasus of the Maruts, of the two Āshvins, king of Vaivasvata, Āditya Kubera, Indra Vishnu and the all pervading Savita, of Bhava, the moon, the sun, of Varmā, Lord of the waters, of the Sadhyas. of Brahma, of the Pitris, of Rudra with his gaṇās, of Sarasvati. of the Siddhas and other holy Gods, presenting the wise.
Briggs, Ferishta, II, 41.

[2] Nairne. Intro, XII, Altekar, The Rashṭrakuṭās and their times, 270, 308.

[3] Papanch-Sudani, II, 101; Saratthappatani, III, 176; Dikshit, Buddhist settlements of western India (Bom. Uni.) 1933, 2, 3, According to Buddhist writers, in one of his former births, Gautama was Buddhist Suparak i.e. a Buddhisatva of Sopārā. Gāutama almost certainly never left Northern India but Fa Hian, (A. D. 420) seems to refer to the Koṅkaṇ caves and states that the monasteries were dedicated to Kāshyapā, the Buddha who came before Gautama. This Kāshyap is said to have been a Benaras Brāhmaṇ who lived about B. C. 1000. He was worshipped by Devdatta who seceded from Gautama. The seat was still in existence in A. D. 400—Sykes, Tour—R. A. S.—"Political State of Ancient India", IV, 290, VI, 257, 266, 334, The fame and holiness of Koṅkaṇ caves date before the rise of Buddhism. The story is that Purṇa, the Chief of the merchants of this port. being affected by hearing the Buddhist hymns sung from Shrivatsi near Benaras, determined to become the follower of Gautama. On presenting himself as disciple, he was received with honour at Shrivatsi by Gautama. He soon rose to high place among Gautama's followers and asked leave of his master to preach Buddhism

CHAPTER 2.
History.
EPIC PERIOD.

conversion of Konkaṇ to Buddhism as early as the life time of Gautama (B.C. 560—481). Incidentally, it may be noted that these were the earliest centres that Buddhism found its way into the hearts of Aparāntha[1]. Chipḷūṇ and Kol and Dābhoḷ caves indicate that some of them were donated by Sārthavāhās or caravan-men. To-day, the total number of caves covered by western India group is 9/10th of the number of caves found in India[2].

NANDAS. (Pre-Mauryan Period).

The Nandas held sway over this part of the Deccan. The conquest of this territory was probably effected in the days of Bimbisāra and Ajātshatrū and was maintained by their successors. When, however, the Nanda dynasty was overthrown by the Mauryas, this country passed into the hands of the Mauryas[3].

MAURYAS. (4th century B.C. to 3rd century B.C.).

From the inscription of Ashoka, we learn that his empire extended far into the south and certainly included Mahārāshṭra and Aparāntha[4]. The headquarters of Ashoka's southernmost province was a place of the name Suvarṇagirī and that his representative there was a royal prince (Ārya putra). Brahmagirī and Sindhupurā belonged to a district called Isila, which was subordinate to the viceroy at Suvarṇagirī[5].

By B.C. 246, when Ashoka determined to spread Buddhism over India, Yona (i.e. the Bactrian) Dharmarakshita Thāra was sent to Aparāntha and Mahādharma was, likewise, sent to Mahārāshṭra. In addition to the legends in the Mahāvamsha and Dīpavamsha, the Samantapāsādika adds that it was by the Aggi-khāndopama Sutta that 37,000 people were converted in Aparāntaka by Yonaka Dharmarakshita. In Mahārāshṭra it was the Mahākasga-Nariha Jātaka that was preached by Mahādharma Rakshita Thāra[6]. The fragment of the eighth edict of Ashok, found in April 1882, in Sopārā in the adjoining district of Ṭhāṇā, seems to show that Ratnāgirī district formed part of a kingdom in B.C. 250 (Aparāntha), the Capital of which was Sopārā, the seat from which the Yavana Dharmarakshita preached law to all the people. The flourishing state of Buddhism in the second and the third centuries and the close trade connections between Egypt and the Konkaṇ at that time made it probable that much of the European knowledge of Buddhism was gained from the monks of these caves. On account of these close connections even

in the country of Shronaparantha, apparently the Konkaṇ. (Aparāntha, according to Bhandarkar and Pandit Bhagvanlal was the western coast below the Sahyādris, corresponding to modern Konkaṇ). Gautama reminded him how fierce and cruel the people were, but Purṇa persisted and promising to overcome violence by patience, was allowed to make an attempt. His quiet fearlessness disarmed the people of Aparāntha. Numbers became converts and monasteries were built and flourished.

[1] Dikshit, 2, 3.

[2] Dikshit, 74.

[3] Moreas, the Kadamba-kula. 3, 9; Chitgupi, Western Chalukyas of Vatapi, 24.

[4] Bakhle, Satavahanas and the contemporary ksatraps, 44. Nilkanta Sastri, 84.

[5] Nilkanta Sastri, A History of South India. Chitgupi, Western Chalukyas of Vatapi, 25.

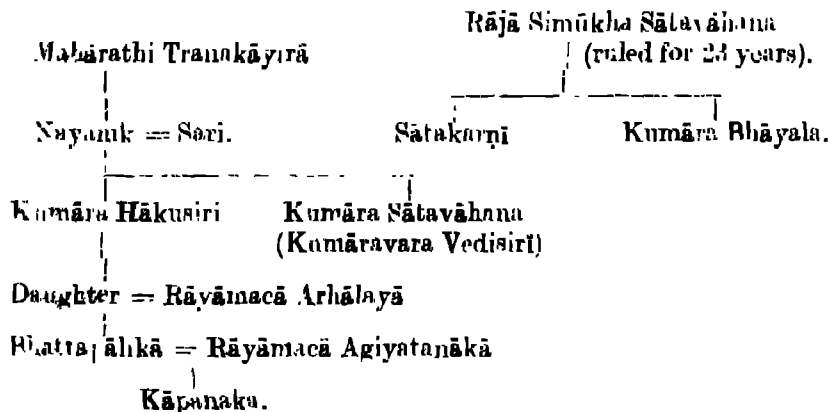
[6] Dikshit, 5 (Anguttara, IV 128-135); Chitgupi, 26.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MAURYAS.
(4th century B. C. to 3rd century B. C.).

during the first and the second christian centuries, the observer of the early relations between Buddhism and Christianity may find along this frequented route greater evidence of mutual influence than along the relatively obstructed overland routes through Parthia to Antioch and Ephesus. By the third century, with the decline of growth of Antioch and Byzanteion and the fall of the Arsacid dynasty, the tendency would be the other way[1]. However, in the beginning of the fifth century (420 A. D.), Fa Hian described from hearsay a monastery in the Deccan, in a hilly barren land whose people were heretics, knowing neither the Buddhism nor the Brāhmaṇ religion. Later, Hiuan Tsan, proceeding to North-West from the Canara (Koung kin na pou Lo) country and passing through thick forest, came to the country of the Marāṭhās (Ma ha la tho), the inhabitants of which lived by the maritime commerce. Proceeding to the South-West, he embarked at Bāṇkoṭ[2]. Lao-Lun, whose Indian name was Silaprabhā, was yet another monk, who travelled through this part. He is stated to have studied the Vedidharma Pitekā. However, Buddhism lingered in this part after eighth century[4].

EARLY SATAVAHANAS.
(220 B. C. to Second half of first century B. C.).

As province after province fell out of the empire of Ashoka and formed itself into a separate kingdom under some chief, a branch of the Sātiyaputrās who are mentioned in the Edicts of Ashoka took advantage of this opportunity and founded a kingdom in what was known as Mahārāshtra[5]. In the light of the information supplied by the Hāthigumphā inscription of Khārevela and that at Nāṇe Ghāṭ, we get 220 B. C. as the approximate year in which Simūkā founded the dynasty of the Sātavāhanās[6]. The independent State of Sātiputra

1 Schoff, the Periplus of the Erythraen Sea, 65.
Nilkanta Sastri, History of South India, 77.

2 Sykes, Political State of Ancient India, J. R. A. S., VI, 329.
Chitgupi, Western Chalukyas of Vatapi, 3.

3 Dikshit, 58.

4 Ibid. 74, 75, 81.

5 Bakhle, 45.

6 Bakhle, 48, Sir R. Bhandarkar and D. R. Bhandarkar, however, advocate 75 B. C. as the date of the rise of their dynasty.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

EARLY SATAVAHANAS. (220 B. C. to second half of first century B. C.).

army was situated along the western ghats and the Koṅkaṇ coast below[1]. Their territory extended from sea to sea[1a].

Sātakarṇī was probably contemporary with Pushyamitra and the performance of the Ashvamedha sacrifice recorded in the Nāṇe Ghāṭ inscription can be explained by supposing that he was the actual conqueror of Ujjain[2]. The sacrifices and fees paid to the Brāhmaṇs testify eloquently to the wealth of his realm and his Ashvamedha sacrifice bespeaks his *sārvabhaumatva*. But after Kuntala, the Sātavāhanās were forced to take refuge in Southern Mahārāshṭra.

In this work of conquests, the Sātavāhanās were helped by the Rathikās and Bhojās who were duly rewarded with offices, titles and matrimonial alliances[3].

SAKAS. (78 A. D.)

The great empire of the Mauryās went to pieces in the 2nd century B. C. The western coast was a bone of contention between the Salea commanders and the Āndhra monarchs, who maintained the feud for at least a century, with varying success. The Western Kshatrapa or saka Satraps, who subsequently defeated the Āndhras, annexed all the Koṅkaṇ coast[4]. A half century later the Āndhras under Vilivayakura II or Gautamīputra Sātakarṇī, reconquered the coast-line, only to lose it to the Satraps after another generation[5]. In about 78 A. D. the Kshatrapas were exterminated and it is natural, therefore, that the era founded in that year whether by Kanishka or by Vima-kadphises or by Castana came to be associated in the south with the defeat of the Sakas by the Shālivāhana king[6]. However, it has to be noted that the district was under Rudradaman, the Mahākshatrap, in about 130-150 A.D.[7].

GREEKS.

In the years 155-153 B. C. Greek King Menander, apparently a brother of Appolodotus, whose capital was Kābūl, annexed the entire valley of Indus, the peninsula of Saurāshṭra and other territories on the western coast[8].

LATER SATAVAHANAS. (75 B. C. to A. D.) about 225.

The power of the Kshatrapas in Western India was necessarily weakened by the wars between the Kushānās and the Shakapallavās in the North-west provinces and in a decisive battle, a deadly blow to the supremacy of Shakapallavas, in this region was inflicted and

[1] Sir R. Bhandarkar c/f Bakhle, 51.

[1a] Chitgupi, 28.

[2] Bakhle, 53.

[3] Nilkanta Sastri, History of South India, 88.

[4] Schoff, 197; Bakhle fixes the earliest date of Nahapana as 17 B. C. and as the reign of his predecessor Bhumla, probably very brief–the conquest must be placed in about 25-20 B. C., p. 69.

Nilkanta Sastri, 90.

[5] Schoff, 198; Bakhle, 65, 66.

[6] Bakhle, 69.

[7] Bhandarkar (Bapat), 65; Bakhle, 78.

[8] Schoff, 184.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

LATER SATAVAHANAS. (78 B. C. to A. D. about 225.)

thenceforward for about a century, this part continued under the power of the Sātavāhanās. Gautamīputra (C. 80-104 A. D.) is also styled as the lord of the mountains from the Vindhya to the Malaya (lowermost portion of the Deccan) and from the Mahendra (probably in the east) to the Sahya (i.e. Western Ghats[1]). The inscription of his mother Bālashrī enumerates the vast possessions of his, which included obviously Mahārāshtra and the coast-line along the Arabian sea[2]. The inscription of Bālashrī gives us the truest description of him. Re-conquering the country which had remained under foreign domination for about a century, he re-established the glory of his family. He was very agreeable in appearance, brave, courageous and physically well-built. All the neighbouring princes trembled before him and devoutly obeyed his behests. The subjects found in him a kind and solicitous king; in their weal was his happiness, in their woe, his misery. A great champion of Brāhmanical Hinduism, he took particular care to re-establish the caste-system, which was getting weaker under the foreigners. Reasonable taxation, liberal gifts bestowed on his subjects and his polished manners, contributed immensely to his popularity among his subjects. The mother's tearful praise of her departed son indicates his devotion to her and it was but proper that she should finish off, before her own death, the cave which was begun by him to commemorate his victory. He ruled for 18 years over the territory he had inherited from his predecessor and only for five years after his conquest and had it not been for his premature death, he would have ranked as one of the greatest kings of India. Yet as a king he was undoubtedly great, a king of whom any nation would be proud[3]. His son Pulumāvī had retained the title "the Lord of Dakshiṇāpatha". While Pulumāvī was engaged in his conquest of the Andhradesa, Castana, who was a satrap of the Kushahana kings conquered Maḷvā, Gujarat and Kāthiāvār. Vasishṭhaputra Sātakarṇī, conquered much of this territory while it was under Jayadāman, son of Castana and the latter made peace with him by a matrimonial alliance[4]. When Yājnashrī (C. 170-99 A. D.) succeeded to the kingdom, his dominions extended as far as Gujarat and Kaṭhiāvār. But he was not only deprived of these two provinces but also of Mahārāshṭra and Aparāntha; this inference is corroborated by the Junagaḍh inscription of Rudradāman. Rudradāman had won the title of Mahākshatrap which was lost by Jayadāman. Rudradāman had defeated twice the Lord of the Dakshiṇāpath[5], and even before 150 A. D. had conquered Mahārāshṭra and Aparāntha, and driven the Sātavāhanās out of this part[6].

---

[1] Dikshit, 27; Bakhle, 71.
Schoff, 39, 75, 197.
Jayaswal, Saka-Satavahana Problems, U. B. R. S. XVIII, 8-9.

[2] Bakhle, 73 Chitgupi; 28.

[3] Bakhle, 73-74.

[4] Bakhle, 73-74.

[5] Junāgaḍh inscription—Bakhle 83.

[6] Bhandarkar, 80; Bakhle, 84-85. Bhandarkar takes it as 180 A. D.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

LATER SATAVAHANAS. (78 B. C. to A. D. about 225.)

In the Sātavāhana period, both Buddhism and Brahmanical Hinduism flourished. Prākrit literature was much encouraged and developed. Trade guilds and commercial corporations appear to have been in existence, promoting a vigorous internal and international trade[1].

The successors of Yajnyashrī were Vijaya and finally Pulumayī. The names of other Sātavāhana kings–Karṇa, Kumbha and Rudra Sātakarṇī are known from their coins. Other princes of Sātavāhana extraction governed minor kingdoms but nothing is known of the causes that brought about the downfall of the main dynasty[2]. Though the Sātavāhana empire was very vast, its policy was simple and local administration was left largely to the feudatories subject to the general control of royal officials. Kingship was hereditary in the male line though matronymics were freely prefixed to the names of kings and nobles. The king was the guardian of the established social order and was expected to raise taxes justly and to further the prosperity of the poor equally with the rich. Feudatories were of three grades: Rājās who struck coins in their own names; Mahābhojās and Mahārāthīs who were confined to a few families–the latter being connected with the Sātavāhanās by marriages and relatively late in the history of the empire was created the office of Mahāsenāpati, which continued under later dynasties. The State was divided into *aharas* each under a minister (*amātya*). Below these came the villages, each with its own headman (*grāmika*). More interesting was the total assimilation of foreigners, Sakas and Yavanas, either as Buddhists or as degraded Kshatriyas, many of them bearing such thoroughly Indian names as Dharmadeva, Rishabhadatta and Agnivarman. The Grecco-Roman influence had a great share in fashioning the stupas of the times[3].

ABHIRAS AND CHUTUS.

After the fall of the Sātavāhana empire, the Abhiras ruled in the north east and the Chutus in Mahārāshṭra and Kuntala. The Purāṇās state that ten Abhiras ruled for 67 years. The Nāsik inscription speaks of king Madhuriputra Ishvarasena, the Abhir and a son of Shivadatta. This dynasty originated in A. D. 249-50, an era called Kalachurī or Chedi in later times. Some historians consider the Chutus to be a branch of the Sātavāhanās, while others postulate a Nāga origin for them. They were supplanted by the Kadambas[4].

A ninth century tradition affirms that Virakurcha, an early Pallava king of great fame, seized the insignia of royalty together with the daughter of the Nāga king. This may be an echo of the Pallava conquest of the Chutus. About the middle of the fourth century

[1] Chitgupi, 28.

[2] Nilkanta Sastri, 92.

[3] *Ibid.*, 93.

[4] Nilkanta Sastri, 95-96.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE TRAIKUTAS.
Post-Satavahana and Pre-Gupta Period.

A. D. Samudragupta fought with his opponent Vishṇugopa Pallava, the ruler of Kāñchi[1].

The Traikūṭās appear to have held the Koṅkaṇ in the fourth century, but early Rāshṭrakūṭās (375 to 400 A. D.) also held possession of the Koṅkaṇ[2]. The sway of the Traikūṭās, Dārhasena and his son Vyāghrasena, seems roughly to have extended upto Southern Gujarāt, Koṅkaṇ and even in the Ghāṭs. These must have been very powerful rulers as may be noticed from a new era in which their grants are dated. The Mahāyān Buddhism was well spread during the rule of the Traikūṭās. Thereafter the Vākāṭakās ruled over this part[3].

VAKATAKAS.
275–530 A. D.

The Poona plate of the Vākāṭaka queen, daughter of Chandragupta II proves that the Vākāṭakās were not merely a dynasty of Berar but ruled over a considerable part of Mahārāshṭra. Vākāṭaka king Prithvīsena further conquered the country of Kuntala. Prithvīsena (365-90) was the son of Rudrasena (240-65) and Pravarasena II had come after Rudrasena II, successor of Prithvīsena I to the throne. Prabhāvatīguptā mentioned in the Poona plate was the queen of Rudrasena II and was ruling over this territory as regent for her son Divākarasena[4]. "Of all the dynasties of the Deccan that have reigned from the 3rd to the 6th century the most glorious, the most important, the one that must be given the place of honour, the one that has had the greatest influence on the civilisation of the whole of the Deccan, is unquestionably the Vākāṭakās[5]. The Vākāṭakās reigned over an empire that occupied a very central position and it is through this dynasty that the high civilisation of the Gupta empire and the Sanskrit culture in particular spread throughout the Deccan[6]. Jayasimha, the founder of the early Chālukya House and his son, Raṇarāga were possibly feudatories under the Vākāṭakās[7].

The Vākāṭakās had notable diplomatic and matrimonial relationships with all the great contemporary royal families like the Imperial Guptas, the Vishṇukuṇḍins and the Kadambās. It was during the regency of Prabhāvatīguptā that Gujarāt and Kāṭhiāvār were conquered by Chandragupta II. Prabhāvatīguptā offering considerable help to her father. After she had been regent for 13 years,

---

[1] Nilkanta Sastri, 96.

[2] Nairne, 13.

[3] Dikshit, 43, 45, 54; Chitgupi, 30.

[4] Bakhle, 92, 93; Chitgupi, 28.

[5] Prof. Dubrueil; Chitgupi, 29.

[6] Prof. Dubrueil; Chitgupi, 29.

[7] Chitgupi, 33.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
VAKATAKAS.
275-530 A. D.

her elder son, Divākarasena died and she held the regency on behalf of the younger son Damōdarasena (later Pravarasena II) till 410 A. D. Pravarasena II (410-45) was a man of peace. The crown prince Narendrasena married a Kadamba princess–the daughter of Kākushṭhavarman. Narendrasena (445-65 A. D.) had to stop the inroads of the Naḷa king Bhāvadattavarman on his territory; though his grand uncle Kumāragupta was in no position to help him on account of the danger to his own empire from the Hūṇas. Narendrasena's son, Prithīvīsena II was the last known king of the main line and he had to retrieve the fortunes of his family twice. His opponents were very probably the Naḷās and possibly, the Traikūṭās of southern Gujarāt[1].

LATER MAURYAS AND NALAS.
550 A. D.

About the middle of the sixth century, kings of the Maurya and Naḷa dynasties appear to have been ruling in the Koṅkaṇ. Kīrtivarmā (A. D. 550-567), the first Chālukya king who turned his arms against this tract, is described as the night of death to the Naḷās and the Mauryas. And an inscription of Kīrtivarmā's grandson, Pulakeshī (A. D. 610-640) under whom this part was conquered, describes the general Chaṇḍadaṇḍa, as a great wave which drove before it the watery stores of the pools that is the Mauryas. A stone inscription from Vāḍā, in the north of Ṭhāṇā district shows that a Mauryan king by the name Suketuvarmā, was then ruling in the Koṅkaṇ[2].

JAINS.

The Jains make frequent mention of this part of the Koṅkaṇ. Their mythical king Shrīpala is said to have married Tilakasundarī, a daughter of king Maheshana, whose seat of Government was Soparaba. This part was a great seat of their activities, right from Rishabhadev, the first Tīrthankar[3]. There are traces of a time when Jain was the ruling form of faith[3a], though the village temples are now dedicated to Brāhmaṇ gods and there are many of them the broken remains of Jain images. Most of the temple grants seem to date from a time when Jainism was the State religion in the Ratnāgirī district. Jains are believed to have come from Karnāṭak and a king of Sāvantvāḍī is mentioned in an old Belgaum legend. A local chronicle or *bakhar* states that in the 11th century, Dābhoḷ was the seat of a powerful Jain ruler and a stone inscription has been found bearing the date 1156 A. D.[4].

KALACHURI KINGS.
550-1163-1184 A. D.

The Kalachurī kings originally ruled over Jabulpore area. One branch of the Kalachurīs had firmly established itself in the north Koṅkaṇ, at Kalyāṇ as centre. After the fall of Vākāṭakās, southern Mahārāshṭra was lost to the Kadambās and

---

[1] Nilkanta Sastri, 104.

[2] Nairne, 13-14; Chitgupi, Western Chalukyas of Vatapi, May 1, 25, 44.

[3] Bhagavatpuraṇ speaks of Rishabha's wanderings in this part and connects him with the establishment of that religion, here.

[3a] Chitgupi, Western Chalukyas of Vatapi, 23.

[4] Crawford's MS. Bom. Gaz. X, 327.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

KALACHURI KINGS. 550–1163–1184 A. D.

North Mahārāshṭra was lost to Kalachuris. The new religion of Basav had set a great religious revolution there. Having ordered a disciple of his to kill the king, Vijval, who was Jain himself because he had insulted two pious liṅgāyats, Hāllyeyāg and Madhuvevya, Basav had left that part. The king was subsequently killed and Basav settled down at Sangameshvar in the Ratnāgirī district, propounding Shaivism, called the Vīrashaivās. Taking the advantage of the weakness of his master Tailapa, this Kalachurī Mahāmaṇḍaleshvar, Vijval had usurped the Imperial throne of the western Chālukyās and had completed his work of usurpation in A. D. 1162. He had forced the chieftains like Rāmchandra II. to accept his sovereignty[1].

EARLY KADAMBAS. (347-655) A. D

Mayūrasharmā also called Mayūravarmā availed himself of the confusion prevailing in the country after the southern expedition of Samudragupta who had defeated Vishṇugopa of Kāñchī, and established himself as an independent ruler. Later he pleased the Pallavas, his masters who finally installed him as the king over a territory extending from the Amara Ocean (western ocean) to the Premāra country (Mālvā), specifying that the other chiefs "should not enter it". He performed Ashvamedha sacrifices. Chandragupta, II (Vikramāditya) sent embassy to Bhagīratha, the Kadamba king a fact which shows that the Kadamba power was at this time in its ascendency and was equal, if not superior, to the Imperial Guptas[2].

We are told in some of the Chālukya inscriptions that Kirtivarmā, father of Pulakeshī II, subjugated the Kadambas. If this defeat took place at the beginning of the reign of Ajavarmā (565-606), the Kadamba king, it is most likely that throughout his life, he remained a simple Mahāmaṇḍaleshvar under the Chālukyās. The kingdom of the early Kadambās was annexed by Pulakeshī to his empire[3].

VALLABHI. 650 A. D.

Sometimes in the early years of the 6th century A. D. Bhaṭṭāraka, a general of the Gupta emperors, who styled himself as Senāpatī, overthrew Parṇadatta, the Imperial viceroy at Girinagara and established an independent principality round about Vallabhī[4] During the period of the Chālukya decline, this part leading towards Karnāṭak would seem to have been invaded and partly annexed by the Vallabhī dynasty of Gujarāt, after 642 A. D. on the death of the great king Narasinha (which occurred after A. D. 650), the Vallabhī king taking advantage of the change of rulers, invaded the Pallava territory. He inflicted a crushing defeat

[1] Bhandarkar, 201 (the Jain account differs slightly) Moraes, 254.
Dinkar Desai, Mahāmaṇḍaleshvarās under the Chālukyās (Bom. uni.) (149 150) differs from the view that the Sindas were Marāṭhās though they ruled over a Kanarese speaking territory as held by C. V. Vaidya.
Altekar, 423.
Pai, 358-359.
Nīlkanta Sastri, 105

[2] Moraes, 16, 21.

[3] Moraes, 21, 60; Chitgupi, 30.

[4] Dikshit, 60.

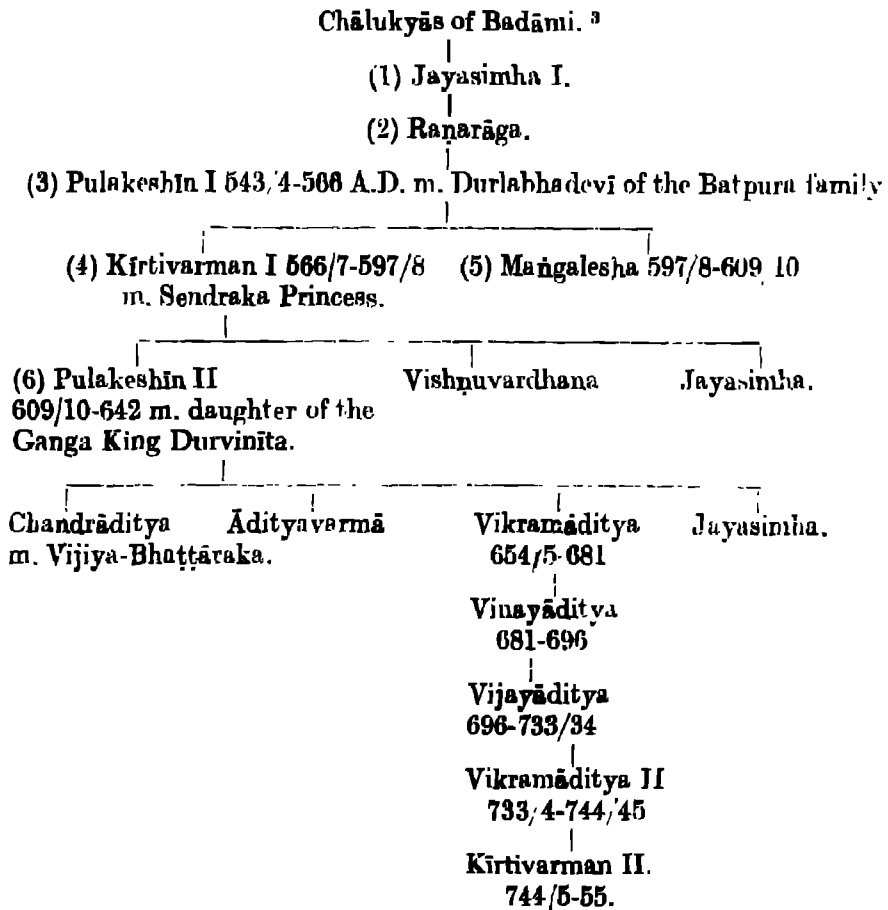
CHAPTER 2.

History.

VALLABHI. 650 A. D.

on Mahendravarmā II and made himself master of the northern part of the Pallava dominions, which had lately been annexed by Narasimha after defeating and killing Pulakeshī. This Vallabhi king is described in the records as "lord of the earth, whose (i.e. Earth's) two breasts are the Sahya and the Vindhya mountains; whose tops clothed in black clouds appear like (her) nipples." This passage may be taken to indicate his territories which stretched far beyond Karnāṭak. This king was Shrī Derabhaṭṭa, also called Shilāditya[1].

EARLY CHALUKYAS.

During the period C. 550-754 A. D. there rose into power a dynasty known as the Chālukyās, often called Early Chālukyās or the Western Chālukyās, with Vātāpī or the modern Badāmī, in Bijāpūr District, as their Capital. The Chālukyās ruled over almost the whole of the Deccan, all the while contributing their best not only in the civil and political fields but also in the propagation of education, fostering literature and commerce and laying the foundations of a school of architecture which is known by their own name[2].

[1] Moraes, 65, 66.

[2] B. B. Chitgupi, the Western Chalukyas of Vatapi (Badami), Int. 1.

[3] Nilkanta Sastri K. A., A History of South India, 163.

The Chālukyās in their records have been styled as Chālkya, Chālikya and Chālukya. The success of the Chālukyās was mainly due to the fact that the persistent inroads of the Huns and Shakās had broken up the Gupta Empire. The last Gupta king, Bhānugupta occupied a dependent position in the beginning of the 6th century.

The Vākāṭakās, too, were on the decline, as they were supposed to have been replaced in the middle of the 6th century by the Kalachurīs, while the Kadambās were engaged in family feuds. Thus there was no strong power to keep the ambitious dynasties heading for hegemony in check.

Pulakeshīn I was the first great monarch of the family and Kīrtivarman I, his son who succeeded him had defeated the confederacy of the Kadambās and the neighbouring chiefs which had been formed against the rising Chālukya power. He conquered the Naḷās, Mauryās of Koṅkaṇ, Gangas, Kadambās and the Atukas. The Chipḷūṇ grant of the time of Pulakeshīn II styles Kīrtivarman I as "First maker or creator of Vātāpī[1]. Kīrtivarman I died in A. D. 597-98, probably leaving several minor children, and the throne, therefore, passed to his younger brother or step-brother Mangalesha (A. D. 597-98 to 610-11), also known as Maṅgalarāja, Maṅgalesha and Maṅgaleshvara. The new king enjoyed the birudas Rāṇā-Vikrānta and Uru Rāṇā Vikrānta, besides Prithivi Vallabha or Shrī-Prithivi Vallabha. Maṅgalesha has been described as a Paramabhāgavat, i.e devout worshipper of the Bhāgavat (Vishṇu). The victory over the Katachchuris (Kalachurīs) and the conquest of Revatīdvīpa, referred to in the Aihole inscription and echoed in the Kauthem grant, were his greatest achievements. According to the Nerur Grant and Mahākuta pillar inscription, the Kalachurī king Buddha, son of Shaukaragaṇa, was defeated before the 12th April, A. D. 602, and his entire possessions were appropriated, when the Chālukya king was desirous of conquering the northern region. While discussing the history of the Kalachurīs, however, we have seen[1] that Buddharājā was in possession of the Nāsik District as late as A. D. 608. The struggle between the Chālukyās and Kalachurīs, therefore, appears to have continued for some years, after which the former came into complete possession of the central and northern Marāṭhā country. The Nerur grant of Maṅgalesha also refers to the killing of the Chālukya chief Svāmirājā who was apparently ruling in the Koṅkaṇ and is said to have been famous for his victories in 18 battles. Most probably this Svāmirājā was placed in the Koṅkaṇ by Kīrtivarman I as his viceroy, and he sided with Pulakeshīn II in his struggle against Maṅgalesha. It is also not unlikely that Svāmirājā had his headquarters at Revatīdvīpa in the waters of the Western or Arabian Sea (i.e. fortified promontory of Redi to the south of

[1] Nīlkanta Sastri, 143.

Vatapyah–Prathama–Vidhata, Chitgupi, 43.

Ibid, 58; Bhandarkar (Bapat), 110. Some scholars are of the view that Harsha was defeated on August 2, 612 or July 23, 613 A. D.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
EARLY CHALUKYAS.

Veṅgurlē in the Ratnāgirī District), which is said to have been conquered by Maṇgalesha, and that the conqueror appointed Indravarman of the Bāppurā (i.e. Bātpurā) lineage, apparently related to his own mother, as the new governor of the region. According to a Goa Grant, Satyāshraya-Dhruvarājā-Indravarman was ruling four *vishayas* or *manḍaḷs* with his headquarters at Revatīdvīpa in January 610 or 611 A. D., which was the twentieth year of his government, and granted a village in the Khetahārdesha (Khed taluka in the Ratnāgirī District) with the permission of the Chālukya emperor of Badāmī. It is usually believed that Indravarman was placed as a viceroy in the Koṅkaṇ by Kīrtivarman I about A. D. 590, the first year of the former's rule according to the Goa Grant. But possibly he was ruling as a subordinate ruler elsewhere and was stationed at Revatīdvīpa only after the conquest of that place by Maṅgalesha some time after A. D. 597-98. It was as a result of the difficult days through which the Chālukya emperor was passing about this time that he appears to have become bold enough to issue the chapter, dated in his own regnal year.

About the end of Maṅgalesha's reign there was a civil war between him and his nephew Pulakeshīn II, son of Kīrtivarman. The cause of the quarrel, according to the Aihole inscription of Pulakeshīn II, was Maṅgalesha's attempt to secure the succession for his own son. As a result of this war Maṅgalesha lost his life and the throne of Badāmī passed to Pulakeshīn II. The son of Maṇgalesha, not mentioned by name in the Aihole epigraph, is usually identified with Satyāshraya-Dhruvarāja-Indravarman of the Goa Grant. But even then his title "an ornament of the original great Bāppurā (Bātpurā) lineage" may be explained by the suggestion that his mother was a Bāppurā princess. The fact that Indravarman acknowledged in January A. D. 610 or 611 the supremacy of Mahārājā Shrī-prithivīvallabha, identified with Pulakeshīn II, renders the theory unlikely; because Pulakeshīn II could have hardly allowed his vital enemy and rival to be the Viceroy of the Koṅkaṇ districts. As however Pulakeshīn's first regnal year corresponds to Saka 532 (expired) while the date of the Goa Grant is Saka 532 (current or expired) the identification of Mahārājā Shrī-prithivī-vallabha overlord of Satyāshraya-Dhruvarāja-Indravarman, with Maṅgalesha is not beyond the bounds of possibility. The Chipḷūṇ plates of his maternal uncle Shrī Vallabha Senānandarāja of the Sendraka family describes him as "one who punishes the wicked people, who receives with hospitality learned people and friends, who confers favours upon servants, who has lit up the field of battle with flames of fire that rises from the tusks of elephants of the hostile kings which are split by the sword that is held in his hands, who is the sole aim of the arrows which are the eyes of nice young women, whose keen intellect is capable of examining the essence of the meaning of various Sāstrās, has taught the goddess of fortune, who is fickle by nature, the observance of a true and faithful wife". He had raised himself to the rank of the lord paramount of the south. He took the title "Parameshvara" by defeating Harsha, the war-like

lord of the north", between 630-634 A. D. Hiuan Tsang, visiting Pulakeshin II in A. D. 641 has given vivid account of the people in this part. Khushru II, king of Persia received in A. D 625-26 a complimentary embassy from Pulakeshin II[1].

The defeat of the Chalukyās by Narasimhavarman (the Pallava monarch) and his capture of Badāmī completely disorganised the administrative machinery of the Chālukyās. But the Chālukya supremacy was eventually re-established by Vikramāditya I, the third son of Pulakeshin II. The Nerur and Kochrem grants show that Chandrāditya, the eldest son of the Pulakeshin II was governing the western parts of the Chālukya dominions which included Ratnāgirī district and Sāvantvāḍī[2].

Pulakeshin's success against the Pallavās was short-lived. About A. D. 642, he was defeated and probably killed by the Pallava king Narasimhavarman I (son of Mahendravarman I) who, in retaliation to Pulakeshin's attack on the Pallava capital, led an expedition against Badāmī and captured it. According to the evidence of several Pallava grants, Narasimhavarman I repeatedly defeated king Vallabha, i.e. Pulakeshin II (or, according to one record, wrote the word "victory", as on a plate, on Pulakeshin's back which was visible as the Chālukya king took to flight), at the battles of Pariyalā, Maṇimaṅgalā, Suramārā and other places and destroyed the city of Badāmī In the Ceylonese chronicle Mahāvamsha, prince Manavarman is represented as having taken shelter at the court of the Pallava king whom he assisted in crushing his enemy, king Vallabha. That the destruction of Vātāpī was not an empty boast on the part of the Pallava king is proved by his title Vātāpīkoṇḍa and by a fragmentary rock inscription at Badāmī itself, which seems to say that the city was conquered by Simhavishṇu or Narasimhavishṇu (i e. Narasimha-varman I), surnamed Mahāmalla.

Vikramāditya I.

The inscriptions of the later members of the Chālukya house of Badāmī represent Pulakeshin II as having been succeeded by one of his younger sons, Vikramāditya I (A. D. 655-81), who claims to have been the "favourite" son of his father, but who ascended the throne several years after his father's death. It appears that after Pulakeshin's death, Badāmī and some of the southern districts of his empire were in the hands of the Pallavās for many years, while several of Pulakeshin's sons were making futile efforts to drive out the enemy, and the viceroys of some of the provinces were ruling without any reference to the overlord (but without actually assuming independence) probably because several sons of Pulakeshin II were rival claimants for the throne. The Kaira and Bagumra Grants referred to above show that the troubled state resulting

[1] Nilkanta Sastri, 145.

[2] Chitgupi, 76, 127, 128; Bhandarkar, 116, 117, 121.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
EARLY CHALUKYAS.
Vikramaditya I.

from Pulakeshīn's death ensued in or shortly before A. D. 643, and that the Chālukya sovereignty was not completely restored in distant provinces even as late as A. D. 655. As no king is placed between Pulakeshīn II and Vikramāditya I in the genealogy found in the formal charters of Vikramāditya I and his successors, it is usually believed that the Chālukya throne remained vacant during the period A. D. 642-55. When, however, the Pallavas were apparently not in occupation of the entire kingdom of the Chālukyās, it is inexplicable why Pulakeshīn's eldest son did not declare himself king in the unconquered regions of the kingdom or at the court of a faithful viceroy or ally, especially when some of the viceroys are found not to have assumed independence. It is likely, therefore, that during this period there were several claimants for the throne, although none of them succeeded in driving out the Pallavas from Badāmī or in asserting his authority over all the viceroys. Eventually, Vikramāditya I, who was probably at first fighting on behalf of one of his elder brothers[1] and enjoying the assistance rendered by the Gaṅga king, Durvinīta, possibly his mother's father, succeeded in freeing Badāmī from the enemies and in securing his father's throne for himself. There is a Gaṅga inscription which speaks of Durvinīta as having acquired fame in the land of Jayasimha Vallabha (founder of the Chālukya house of Badāmī) by seizing the Kāduvetti (meaning Pallava, i.e. the Pallava king of Kāñchī) and setting up his own daughter's son, probably Vikramāditya I[2]. It appears that the sons of Pulakeshīn II received little help from their relatives, the Eastern Chālukyās, who had severed their relations with Badāmī as early as the closing years of Kubja Vishṇuvardhana's reign. One of the rival claimants for the Chālukya throne after the death of Pulakeshīn II appears to have been his "dear" son Ādityavarman who is described in the Kurnul grant of his first regnal vear as Mahārājādhirāja-Parameshvara and Prithivīvallabha and as the supreme ruler of the whole earth overcome by his own prowess. The omission of the names of Ādityavarman and other claimants for the throne from the genealogy in the records of Vikramāditya I and his successors seems to be due to the fact that they were simultaneously ruling in the provinces away from Badāmi, and that their title to the throne was challenged or ignored by Vikramāditya, I, who ousted them. The Kauthem grant of the later Chālukyās, however, represents Pulakeshīn II as succeeded regularly by his son Nedāmari, his grandson Ādityavarman and his great-grandson Vikramāditya I, and this tradition, mistaken as it is, may be a reminiscence of the actual fact that two elder brothers of Vikramāditya I had claimed to have been kings.

[1] It does not appear that Vikramāditya I was a rival claimant from the very beginning, for in that case he would have probably dated the commencement of his reign in A. D. 642 and not 655.

[2] Some scholars place Durvinītā's reign much too early for this (Cf. Ch. XIII p. 269). For the date of Durvinītā Cf. Successors of the Sātavāhanās, pp. 299-302. Vikramāditya's queen Gaṅga Mahādevī, mentioned in the Gadval Grant, may have been a grand-daughter of Durvinīta.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

EARLY CHALUKYAS.

Vikramaditya I.

The existence of Chandrāditya, another elder brother of Vikramāditya, is known from two grants[1] of Vijayabhaṭṭārikā, wife of the former. In both these grants, Vikramāditya is described as the dear son of Pulakeshīn and conqueror of hostile kings and restorer of the fortune and sovereignty of his ancestors. As, besides, his name is placed before Chandrāditya, there is no doubt that the latter enjoyed a feudatory status though there were cordial relations between the two brothers. It is difficult to decide whether Chandrāditya was alive when his wife issued the grant.

According to the Talmañchī and Nerur grants, Vikramāditya I ascended the throne after September 654 and before July 655 A.D. Like his brother Ādityavarman, he also claimed to have been the "dear" son of Pulakeshīn II. Vikramāditya I had the birudas Satyāshraya, Raṇarasika, Anivārita and Rājamalla, and enjoyed not only the epithet Shri-prithivīvallabha (Shrīvallabha or Vallabha) but also the imperial titles Mahārājādhirāja Parameshvara and sometimes Bhaṭṭāraka. In a few viceregal records he is described as a Paramamaheshvara and as meditating on the feet of Nāgavardhana, who is supposed to have been the king's religious teacher. But the Talmañchī grant referring to Shri Meghāchārya as the king's *svakiya-guru* is no doubt more reliable than the above records. Vikramāditya I, who recovered the southern part of the empire from the Pallavas, is said to have conquered his enemies in numerous battles with the help of his sword and his charger named Chitrakāṇṭa. It is further stated that he acquired for himself his father's royal fortune that had been interrupted by three kings, and thus brought the whole kingdom under his sway. By mere word of mouth Vikramāditya I is said to have restored the grants to gods and Brāhmans that had been confiscated by the three hostile kings. Thus the Chālukya monarch acquired the fortune and sovereignty of his ancestors after having defeated several enemies, including not improbably some of his own brothers. The Hyderabad grant shows that Vikramāditya fought with the Pallava monarchs Narasimhavarman I, his son Mahendravarman II and grandson Parameshvaravarman I. Vikramāditya I is described in it as having obliterated the fame of Narasimha, destroyed the power of Mahendra, and surpassed Ishvara (i.e. Parameshvaravarman I) in statesmanship and thus crushed the Pallavas. He is further said to have captured Kāñchī after conquering Ishvarapotarāja (i.e. Parameshvaravarman I). The Gadval grant describes him as the destroyer of the family of Mahāmalla (i.e. Narasimhavarman I) and of the Pallava lineage. From these accounts it is clear that, for the complete recovery of the lost districts of his father's kingdom, Vikramāditya had to fight with no less than three Pallava kings in succession. The struggle must have covered a long period of time commencing some years before and ending many years after his

[1] BG. p. 366. The expression Svarājya in one of the grants should be taken to mean 'the sovereignty of ourselves (i.e. the Chālukya)'. Vijayabhaṭṭārika may have been the celebrated poetess Vijja mentioned in the literary traditions.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

EARLY CHALUKYAS.

Vikramaditya I.

actual accession to the throne. Later records represent him as receiving the surrender of Kāñchī after defeating the Pallava king as humbling the kings of the Cholas, Paṇḍyās, and Keralas, and as getting obeisance done to him by the rulers of Kāñchī who were the cause of his family's humiliation. Thus Vikramāditya I is said to have become the lord of the whole earth bounded by the three oceans, indicating the Indian Ocean, and sometimes conceived as a secondary Chakravartī-kshehtra. In some records the Kalabhras are added to the list of peoples subdued by Vikramāditya I. Epigraphic records also speak of the great assistance that was rendered to the Chālukya king by his son Vinayāditya and grandson Vijayāditya. Vinayāditya claims to have arrested at his father's command the power of forces of the Trairājya-Pallava-pati or Trairājya-Kāñchipati and pleased his father by ensuring peace in all the provinces, while Vijayāditya is said to have entirely uprooted the assemblage of the foes when his grandfather was engaged with the enemies in the south. Vinayāditya's exploit has been explained as a success against the Pallava king of Kāñchī as well as the latter's neighbours, the kings of the three kingdoms of the Cholas, Paṇḍyās and Keralas[1].

According to the Pallava records, king Parameshvaravarman I defeated the army of Vallabha (i.e. Vikramāditya I) at the battle of Peruvalānallur and, unaided, compelled the Chālukya king, whose army consisted of several lakhs, to take to flight, covered only by a rag. The Pallava king is further said to have destroyed the city of Raṇarasika (Vikramāditya I), i.e. the Chālukya capital at Badāmī[2]. According to the Honour Grant[3] Vikramāditya was encamped at Malliyurgrama to the west of Kāñchī in A. D. 671. The Gadval grant of Vikramāditya shows that he emulated the exploits of his father and advanced in the south as far as the Chola capital at Uragapura on the southern bank of the Kāverī (modern Uraiyur near Trichinopoly), where he was stationed on the 25th April, A. D. 674. This suggests that the Pallava power was temporarily paralysed once again. But the Pallava king had, according to some writers, allied himself with some of the southern monarchs including the Paṇḍyā king Kochchadaiyan, and ultimately succeeded in driving the Chālukyās out of the southern region. But the Pāṇḍyās in this period were enemies of the Pallavas. The credit for the

---

[1] It is difficult to agree with scholars who believe that Vinayāditya defeated the Pallava lord of Kāñchī, who had under him three kingdoms or a kingdom having three divisions.

[2] According to some scholars, the Periyapurāṇam (Siruttondar, V. 6) suggests that, when the Chālukya king was leading the expedition against the Pallava country, Parameshvaravarman I sent his general Siruttondar to capture Vātāpi. The Chālukya king's grandson Vijayāditya possibly succeeded in repulsing the Pallava army under Siruttondar. The claim of Gaṅga Bhūvikrama, successor of Durvinīta, to have defeated the Pallava king (possibly Parameshvaravarman) at Vilinda in the Tumkur region of Mysore seems to refer to a phase of this Chālukya-Pallava struggle (IGO XXVIII, 63-64).

[3] Arch. Surv. Mysore, 1939, p. 134.

SILAHARAS—A. D. 770—C—1020 A. D.

A. D.

defeat of the Chālukyās at the battle of Peruvalanallur near Trichinopoly has to be ascribed to the military genius of the Pallava king alone.

The oldest of the Silāhara Houses—and there were three of them, ruling over Western India[1]—was ruling over this part i.e. south Koṅkaṇ from C. 770 to C. 1020 A. D. With one or two exceptions, the rulers of these families never aspired for the Imperial crown and they were all along feudatories in status, professing allegiance first to the Rāshṭrakūṭās and then to the Chālukyās, the Kādambas and the Yādavās. The Khārepāṭaṇ plates in Ratnāgirī district of Anantadev refer to a Dayādavairivyasana, but the silāharās of southern Koṅkaṇ aver that they were connected with the kings of Simhala and not to the town of Tagara as the other two branches namely of Ṭhāṇā and Kolhāpur, obviously do. The kings of Simhala were more probably the rulers of Goa[2]. South Koṅkaṇ and the territories ruled over by the Silāharas were under the influence of the Canarese. Most of the names of the ministers of the Silāhara kings show that they hailed from Karnāṭak[3]. The names of the rulers of this house are known to us from the Khārepāṭaṇ grant of Rattarāja[4].

Sanaphulla—C. 765 to C. 795 A. D.

Dhāmnura—C. 795 to C. 820 A. D.

Aiyaparāja—C. 820 to C. 845 A. D.

Avasāra I—C. 845 to C. 870 A. D.

Avasāra II—C. 895 to C. 920 A. D.

Indrasāja—C. 920 to C. 945 A. D.

Bhīma—C. 945 to C. 970 A. D.

Avasāra III—C. 970 to C. 995 A. D.

Rattarāja—C. 995 to 1020 A. D.

(Known year—1008 A. D.)

The founder of this house, according to the Khārepāṭaṇ plate, obtained the lordship over the territory between the Sahya mountain and the sea, through the favour of Krishṇarāja[5]. By B C. 895, during the rule of Ādityavarmā, the sphere of influence of the Southern Silāharās had extended over the whole of Koṅkaṇ, from Goa to Bombay[6]. Rattarāja was, after the overthrow of the Rāshṭrakūṭās,

---

[1] The other two branches were Silāharas of North Koṅkaṇ (Ṭhāṇā) and the Silāharās of Kolhāpūr.

[2] Altekar, Indian Culture, II, 393 ; Nairne, 15.

[3] Altekar, 393 ; Nairne, 15.

[4] Altekar, Ibid ; Nairne, 21 ; Bhandarkar (Bapat), 251-252.

[5] Krishṇarājaprasādavan Samudratīrasahyāntadesa Samṣābanobhavat. Khārepāṭaṇ plate quoted by Altekar.

[6] *Ibid.* 400.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
SILAHARAS NORTHERN.

compelled to recognise the Chālukya sovereignty. While Aparājita of the Ṭhāṇā Silāharās had assumed independent power[1], Rattarāja may have declared independence soon after the death of Satyāshraya, Jayasimha, younger brother of Vikramāditya, who succeeded Satyāshraya, inflicted a signal defeat on the Cholas of the south and while returning from the south, defeated Rattarāja or his son and annexed his kingdom. Thus ended the career of the Silāhara House of the South, about 250 years, after its foundation[2]. The district of Ratnāgirī was under the Silāharās and the capital of their kingdom, which, however, is not mentioned in their records but was probably Goa and later it may have been transferred to a more central place in the vicinity of Ratnāgirī or Khārepāṭaṇ[3].

SILAHARAS NORTHERN.

Certain parts of the Ratnāgirī district were included in the kingdom of the Northern Silāharās, which came under this house sometime after the extinction of the Silāharās, of Southern Konkaṇ[4]. The founder of the house, Kapardin, was a contemporary of the Rāshṭrakūṭa Emperor Govind III. He seems to have given active help to that emperor in his numerous wars and was rewarded by the grant of the feudatory rulership over Northern Konkaṇ. The capital was at Ṭhāṇā[5].

Kapardin I—C. 800 to C. 825 A. D.
|
Pullashakti—C. 825 to C. 850 A. D. (known year 843 A. D.).
|
Kapardin II-C. 850 to C. 880 A. D.
|
Vappuvana—C. 880 to C. 910 A. D.
|

Jhaujha C. 910 to C. 930 A. D.	Goggi C. 930 to C. 945 A. D.
Lashthiyavva	Vajjada I, C. 945 to C. 975 A. D.

[1] Nairne, 16.

[2] Altekar, Ibid. 401.

[3] Altekar, Ibid. 412.

[4] Altekar, Ibid. 16.

[5] Altekar, 402; Nairne, 15. The dates given by Nairne in 1895 are slightly different.

Aparājita, C. 975 to C. 1010 A.D.

Vajjada II
C. 1010 to C. 1015 A.D.

Arikesarin *alias* Kesideva
C. 1015 to 1025 A.D. (known year 1060 A.D.)

Chittarāja
C. 1025 to C. 1040.

Nagārjuna (did not rule)

Mammuni
C. 1040 to C. 1070 A.D.
(known year 1060 A. D.)

Anantdeva or Anantpāḷa
C. 1070 to C. 1110
(known year 1095 A. D.)

Āparaka I, C. 1110 to C. 1140 A.D.
(known years 1118, 1127, 1129 and 1138 A.D.

Harpāḷadeva, C. 1140 to C. 1155 A. D. (known years 1149, 1150, and 1153 A.D.)

Mallikārjuna C. 1155 to C. 1170 A. D. (known years 1156, 1160 A.D.).

Aparāditya or Āparaka II, C. 1170 to C. 1195 A.D.

Keshirāja II, C. 1195 to C. 1240 A.D.
(known years 1203, 1238 A. D.).

Someshvara, C. 1240 to 1265 A. D.)[1]
(known years 1249, 1260 A. D.).

After the turning battle in the Silāhara-Kadamba war was fought in 1126 A. D., as a result of the victory, Āparaka ceased to be a Kadamba feudatory and regained most of his hereditary possessions. The Chipḷūṇ inscription, dated 2nd December 1157 leads to understand that Prabhākar Nāyak was Mallikārjuna's foreign minister and that Mallikārjuna, having no fear from the Kadambas, engaged in a bitter struggle with the Hoysalas and was ruling over Ratnāgirī district, till the end of his rule (C. 1170 A. D.). He, however, could not long enjoy his kingdom in peace as his northern neighbour, Chālukya Kumārapāḷa of Gujarāt was an ambitious ruler and pretending to be offended by a pretentious title taken by Mallikārjuna, he invaded his dominions. Mallikārjuna being defeated and slain, Kumārapāḷa's rule was established for a while over Mallikārjuna's territory. During the reign of Keshirāja (C. 1195 to C. 1240 A. D.) the Yādavas of Devgiri were rapidly extending their power and Keshirāja must have been compelled by them to recognise their suzerainty[2].

The inscriptions throw light on the condition of the kingdom. The administration seems to have been carried on by the king assisted by a great councillor or a great minister, a great minister

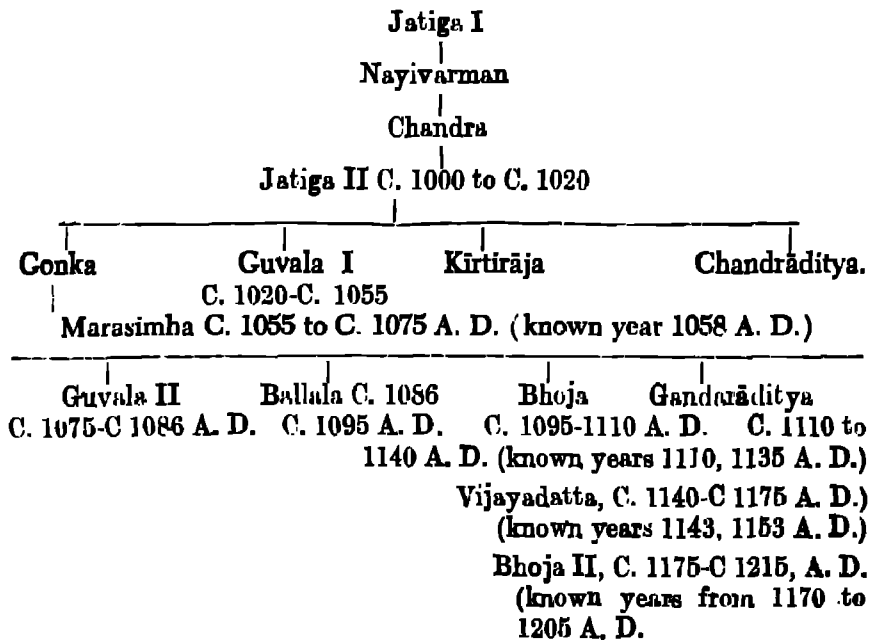
[1] Dotted lines indicate that the relationship between the two kings is not known.

[2] Altekar, 416; Nairne, 21

CHAPTER 2. — History. SILAHARAS NORTHERN.

for peace and war, two treasury lords and sometimes a chief secretary. The subordinate machinery consisted of the heads of district Rāshṭras, heads of sub-divisions, Vishayas, heads of towns and heads of villages[1]. The Silāhara administration was very methodical. Hinduism, Buddhism and Jainism were all living side by side in the Silāhara districts very amicably, but the Silāharas themselves were Hindus[2]. A verse in the Khārepāṭaṇ plates of Anantdeva suggests that they held in specially high reverence Somanātha of Prabhāsā[3]. The Khārepāṭaṇ plates further reveal that temples used to maintain schools and *sattras*, which helped considerably the task of the propagation of religion, culture and education. The Musalmans in the beginning of the thirteenth century and the Portuguese in the sixteenth century destroyed temples and stone-faced reservoirs by the score. Some of the Silāharas seem to have encouraged learning. One af them Aparāditya I even sent a Konkaṇ representative to a great meeting of learned men in Kashmir[4]. The feudal lords of the Silāharas were first the Rāshṭrakūṭas and then the Chālukyas, Paramāras or the Kadambas.

SILAHARAS OF KOLHAPUR. (C. 940, C. 1000 to C. 1215 A. D.)

The third Silāhara house rose to prominence at the beginning of 11th century. It held sway over a portion of the southern Konkaṇ for sometime. The Rāshṭrakūṭās who were formerly ruling over this area had fallen, their successors, the Chālukyās were engaged in a bloody war with the Paramārās and the Cholās and so Jātiga, the Silāhara king may have succeeded in carving out a principality for himself.

[1] Nairne, 21

[2] Altekar, 427.

[3] Gatvā Saiśava eva Sainyasahito drshtvā cha Someśvaraṇi Tasyāgre picturājnāyā jagadalni yah Kilayitvāgatah, Altekar, 427.

[4] Nairne, 22.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

SILAHARAS OF KOLHAPUR (C. 940, C. 1000 to C. 1215 A. D.).

Goṅka is described as the conqueror of Koṅkaṇ. But Jayasimha had already conquered South Koṅkaṇ. Hence, it seems natural that he may have for the convenience of administration, allowed Goṅka to rule over such portions of South Koṅkaṇ which he could manage to hold against the Kadambās. Bhoja I was repulsed by Āchugi II trusted feudatory of Vikramāditya VI, the Chālukyan emperor[1]. Āchugi II became the saviour of the Chālukya empire which at the close of the glorious rule of Vikramāditya VI, was attacked by the Hoyasalās from the south, by the Goa Kadambās from the west, by the Karāḍ Silāharās from the north and by the Uchchaṅgi Pāṇḍyās from the east. It was only through the instrumentality of Āchugi that the emperor Vikrama was able to hold these refractory Mahāmaṇḍaleshvarās in check[1].

KADAMBAS OF GOA (966 A. D. to 1340 A. D.).

Gandarāditya was the undisputed king of Koṅkaṇ. Vijayāditya played a prominent part in the conspiracy formed by the minister Bijjala against his lord Talia III and had helped the Ṭhāṇā Silāhara king, Āparaka as well as the Goa, Kadamba king[2].

Kadambās of Goa (966 A. D. to 1340 A. D.)

Kautakāchārya
|
Nāgvarmā
|
Guhalla-deva I
|
(1) Shāstha-deva I

or

Chaturbhuja (966-980 A. D.?)
|
(2) Guhalla-deva II (980-1005 A. D.?)
|
(3) Shāstha-deva II (1005-1050 A. D.)
|
(4) Jayakesi I (1050-1080 A. D.)
|
(5) Guhalla-deva III (1080-1100 A. D.)
|
(6) Vijayāditya I (1100 to 1104 A. D.)
|
(7) Jayakesi II (1104 to 1147-48 A. D.)
|

8(a) Sivachitta or Permadi 1147-48-1181 A. D.

8(b) Vishṇuchitta or Vijayāditya II 1147-48-1187-88. and (9) Jayakesi III-1187-88-1216.

---

1 Altekar, 422-23.

1 Dinkar Desai, 422-423, Mahāmaṇḍaleshvarās under Chālukyās (Bom. Uni.), 1933, pp. 95-90.

2 Altekar, 423-24.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

KADAMBAS OF GOA (966 A. D. to 1340 A. D.).

Sivachitta Vajra-deva 1193-1202 (Yuvarāja).
|
(11) Shāstha-deva III 1246-47-1260.

(10) Tribhuvanamalla or Sova-deva 1216-1237-38.
|
a daughter m. to

(12) Kāma-deva 1260-1310-11 (?)
|
(13) Son 1310-11-1328 (?)
|
(14) Son 1328-1340 (?)

The real founder of the Goa Kadambās was king Shāsthadeva who is called Chhatta, Chhattala or Chhaltala or Chhattaya. Jayakesi II is called Chittuka because the descendant of Chhattadev claims to have conquered southern Koṅkaṇ[1]. But even earlier. Guhalladeva I who succeeded Nāgavarmā was an ally of the southern Silāharās who were ruling on the western coast with Goa as their capital[2]. Chaturbhuja finally had established the house as Mahāmaṇḍaleshvarās and probably joined the grand coalition of the southern powers, overthrowing the Rāshṭrakūṭās. The original kingdom of the Goa Kadambās seems to have been the country to the south of the island of Goa including a part of Sālsette and perhaps a strip of land extending towards the western ghāṭs. Their capital was Chandrapurā (modern Chandor) one of the most ancient towns in the Konkaṇ, probably founded by Chandrāditya, a son of the Chālukya king Pulakesī II. Indeed in the *Dvyasharaya*, a Sanskrit work which was probably written by the famous Tam guru Hemchandra in the 12th century, king Jayakesi I is said to have been ruling at Chandrapurā[3].

Guhalla-deva II was the son of the king Chaturbhuja and queen Akkādevī. He overcame the neighbouring rulers and extended the boundaries of his kingdom, "humiliating the kings of the Seven Malayas." Shāsthadeva II closely adhered to the policy of his father and the result was that before the end of his reign he became acknowledged master of the whole of Koṅkaṇ. In this achievement Shāsthadeva was helped by the dissensions that prevailed at this time between the North and South Silāharās. The struggle started in the reign of northern Silāhara king Arikesari. Arikesari had captured this part from southern Silāharās to whom it originally belonged. Though Arikesari prevailed against his enemy Rattarāja in this war, the result was not an unmixed blessing for the northern Silāharās. The protracted struggle weakened the power of the conquerors. This calamity was further aggravated by the death of Arikesari and in the reign of his infant son Chittarāja, the authority was greatly relaxed. Hence Shāsthadeva made a bid for the sovereignty of the Koṅkaṇ. The Silāharās, after the conquest of

[1] Altekar, 412.

[2] Moraes, kadambakula, 168.

[3] Moraes, 168-169.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

KADAMBAS OF GOA (966 A. D. to 1340 A. D.)

Konkaṇ by Shāsthadeva became the feudatories of Shāsthadeva. He was the Mahāmaṇḍaleshvara under the Chālukya Emperor, Jayasimha II. Jayakesī I made Gopakapaṭṭaṇa, the capital of Southern Silāharās, the principal seat of his government. Jayakesī killed Mammuri in action, who had revolted and also subdued Tribhuvanamalla Kāmadeva, "the ruler of the Konkaṇ Rāṣṭra". He helped the Chālukya Emperor, Someshvara, in ousting the Cholās who made inroads into the Chālukya empire and gave his daughter in marriage to Someshvara's son, Vikramāditya[1]. He later on brought about the friendship between the Chālukyās and the Cholās. Yādava prince, Seunachandra II and Jayakesī established the Chālukya king Vikramāditya in his kingdom, "overcoming all opposition" which had ensued due to confusion that followed the civil war between Vikramāditya and his brother Someshvara. When Guhalladeva III, the son and successor of Jayakesī I came to throne in 1180, Anantpāḷa forced the Kadambās to give up the part of the Silāhara territory which they had annexed in the previous reigns[2]. However, Vijayadatta who followed, succeeded in re-establishing his sway over the district. When the Hoyasalās under the leadership of a Daṇḍanayaka, named Gangarāja inflicted a serious disaster on Vikramāditya VI, Goa-Kadamba king Jayakesī II styled himself, declaring independence of the western Chālukya over lordship, the "Konkaṇ-Chakravarti" or the emperor of the Konkaṇ. However, Āchugī II, the feudatory of Vikramāditya "seized upon Konkaṇ" very soon, the differences were made up and Vikramāditya even gave his daughter in marriage to Jayakesī II. Jayakesī made use of this valuable influence and secured for himself the paramount place among the chiefs of Deccan. By 1125-26, he was lord of the Province of Konkaṇ, from Goa to Ṭhāṇā, including the whole of Ratnāgirī district, which formed part of his vast empire[3]. In the peaceful government of his kingdom, Jayakesi II was assisted by Lakshamaṇa. "Too awful to be faced, even when regarded from afar, he crossed over the Sahya (mountain), drank up the ocean whose waters are naturally not to be traversed, eradicated the wicked and settled the country, now the glorious Konkaṇ has become free from dangers[4]". Lakshamaṇa's son, Soma was quite a literary celebrity who was conversant with sciences such as logic, grammar, literary composition and politics. Soma's younger brother, Simha was also a great minister and an eminent scholar. "Was he not indeed", says the inscription, "illustrious on the ocean-encircled earth, a Patañjali, in grammatical science, a Śadanna in the six systems of logic, an omniscient one in the multitude of teachings of literary composition, praised by the whole world, a distinguished Chāṇakya in the whole series of exalted polity, a platform for the

---

[1] Moraes, 181.

[2] Moraes; 188. The Khārepāṭan inscription (copper plate).

[3] Map—Moraes, 192.

[4] Moraes, 193.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

SILAHARAS OF KOLHAPUR.

play of the dance of the brilliant Goddess of speech[1] ?". From the records, we also learn that Simha was a great general.

The Silāhara kings made attempts under Mallihāyina who also was helped by his kinsman, king Vijayadatta C. 1140 to C. 1175 A. D. of the Karāḍ branch[2] in reconquering their country from Jayakesī II who was now engaged in war against the Hoyasalās. But finally Vijayadatta effected an amicable settlement between his relation Mallikārjuna and the Kadamba king Jayakesī II, whereby the former was given the sovereignty over Northern Koṅkaṇ and the latter confirmed in his rule over the rest of the country, and thus putting an end to further troubles, he paved the way to amity and peace between the two ruling dynasties of the Koṅkaṇ. Jayakesī died in about 1147-48 and was succeeded by his eldest son Permadi or Sivachitta. Kamalādevī, the wife of Paradideva was responsible for the diffusion of learning among her subjects. Permadideva was the feudatory of the Chālukyās and remained faithful to them till their downfall in A.D. 1156. On the overthrow of the Chālukya dynasty, however, Permadideva proclaimed his independence and styled himself "Koṅkaṇ-Chakravarti". To all appearances, no immediate steps were taken by the Kalachuryās, the successors of the Chālukyās, to impose their suzerainty on the Goa Kadambās. With the defeat of the Kalachuryās by the Hoyasalās, the Goa Kadambās became the vassals of the latter. But on account of the struggle between the Hoyasalās and the Yādavās, for supremacy, the Hangal Kadamba king Kāmdeva marched against the Koṅkaṇ and compelled Vijayadatta, the king, to transfer his allegiance to him. But Jayakesī III declared himself independent, immediately on his accession in 1187-88. But Tribhuvanamalla, later, was defeated by the Yādav Daṇḍanāyak Vichāna and the conquest of supremacy in the Deccan was finally decided in favour of the Yādavās[3]. Chipḷūn (Chipaloṇa) and Saṅgameshvar had, during this period, great trade with Goa[4].

KADAMBAS OF HANGAL. (967-1347 A. D.)

It would appear that the safety of the newly founded Chālukya empire at this time was seriously endangered by the Chola encroachments on its Southern frontiers (1007-1008). The Cholas were repulsed for the time being by the Chālukya king, Irivabeduṅga Satyāshraya, but they renewed their aggressive activities a few years later in the reign of his son Jayasimha II. Chatta, (980-1031) founder of the Kadamba House of Haṅgal, uniting Banavāsi and Haṅgal, distinguished himself against the Cholās and carved out a kingdom which stretched, on this side, including Ratnāgirī district[5], upto Kolhāpūr. He is referred to as having conquered

[1] Moraes, 193-194.

[2] Moraes, ibid; Altekar, 419; Altekar, 423.

[3] Moraes, ibid, 209.

[4] Moraes, ibid, 269, 333, 363.

[5] Map—Moraes, 97.

KADAMBAS OF HANGAL. (967-1347 A. D.)

Konkan. When the Chālukyās under their king, Jayasimha made an advance on Dhār, the capital of the Mālavās and defeated Bhoja, who was then the Paramār king, the part played by Chaltadev, the feudatory of the Chālukyās, was significant[1]. Thereafter, Kirtivarmā (1075-1116) "subdued the Seven Konkans". He had rebelled once when promptly the rebellion was subdued[2].

LATER RASTRAKUTAS (756–973 A. D.)

The Khārepāṭaṇ inscription shows that the Rāshṭrakūṭās belonged to the House of Yadu[3]. The Chālukyās were finally subjugated by Krishṇarāja Rāshṭrakūṭa (753-775), as many mountain chiefs had sought protection under the Chālukyās and had placed Sanaphulla in charge of the territory[4]. Govinda III, the Rāshṭrakūṭa king, had established sovereignty over this region[5]. The Silāhara king Pullashakti and his son Kapardī had been the feudatories of the sovereign Rāshṭrakūṭa king Amoghavarsha[6] and Amoghavarmā had ceded the Konkaṇ to these Silāhara kings. Indra III had succeeded the Rāshṭrakūṭa king Amoghavarsha II[7]. Krishṇa II was succeeded by his grandson Indra III. Indra III died in C. 917 A. D. Govinda IV who succeeded Amoghavarsha II spent most of his time in the pursuit of pleasures. He was as beautiful as God of love and the Khārepāṭaṇ plates of Rattarāja state that he was the abode of the sentiment of love and was surrounded by a bevy of dancers[8]. Bhīma II of the Eastern Chālukya dynasty claims to have defeated a great army sent by king Govinda. In December 973, the Rāshṭrakūṭa power was overthrown and the causes of this downfall are not far to seek. The forward and aggressive policy of Krishṇa III must have caused a severe drain on the treasury and alienated the sympathies of his feudatories and neighbours. The territories under the direct Imperial administration further diminished in extent by the rise to semi-independence of the Silāharas of Konkaṇ, the Rattas of Saundatti and the Yādavās of Senadesha[9]. These were young, growing and ambitious States, only awaiting an opportunity to throw off the Imperial yoke.

---

[1] Moraes, 98.

[2] *Ibid*, 110, 168, 121.

[3] Bhandarkar, 128.

[4] *Ibid*, 131 cf. Inscription of Krishṇarāja.
Altekar, The Rashtrakutas and their times, 39, 45.

[5] Altekar, 65, 86.
Nilkanta Sastri, 151.
Ibid, 139.

[6] Kharepatan inscription, Bhandarkar, 145; Altekar, 78.

[7] *Ibid*; Altekar, 104, 105.

[8] Altekar, 106.

[9] Altekar, 126.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

LATER RASHTRAKUTAS. (756–973 A. D.)

The measure of internal autonomy that was enjoyed by the feudatories under the Rāshṭrakūṭās was not uniform. However, the Koṅkaṇ Silāharās enjoyed a large amount of internal autonomy. They could create their own sub-feudatories[1].

It is a noteworthy fact that the revival of Hinduism did not affect the fortunes of Jainism in this part; because firstly, the religion was fortunate to acquire State patronage under the early Kadambās, Chālukyās and the Western Caṅgās and secondly the influence of the work and achievements of important Jain saints and writers like Sāmantabhadra, Akalankadeva, Vidyānanda, Mānikyanandin, Prabhāchandra, Jinasena, Gunachandra, and Pampa[2] played its own part. Many of the Rāshṭrakūta kings were themselves Jains and so were many of their viceroys and generals. Amoghavarsha I was undoubtedly a follower of Jainism and yet he was such an ardent believer in the Hindu goddess Mahālakshmī, that he actually cut off one of his fingers and offered it to her, being led to believe that an epidemic from which his kingdom was suffering, would vanish by that sacrifice[3].

LATER CHALUKYAS. (973–1189 A. D.)

During Satyāshraya's reign, (997-1008 A. D.) this part seems to have been in the hands of one Rāhu Rājā or Ratta Rājā. The earliest copper plate pertaining to the Chālukyās, found in Koṅkaṇ was of A. D. 1008, according to Rev. Nairne and it recorded the grants of villages near Vijaydurg by a Chālukyan king, then holding sovereign power. It was, however, not the king but his tributary Rāhu Rājā, the master of Koṅkaṇ who made the grant. This chief appears as Ratta Rājā in the Khārepāṭaṇ grant, where he is said to have given away as gift the village of Krishṅamaṇḍī to the temple of Avveshvara for feeding the ascetics, the learned men and visitors[4]. The Saṅgamner record of Yādava Bhillama II dated A. D. 1000 describes him as a Mahāsāmanta or great feudatory who had obtained the five Mahāshabdās. It further says that he granted the village of Arjunakoṇḍhika to 21 Brāhmaṇs. But the curious fact about this record is that it does not mention his (Bhillama's) overlord, though he is styled a Mahāsāmanta. From the epigraph it is evidently clear that he defeated Muñja of Māḷvā and had increased the fortune of his sovereign overlord Raṇaraṅgabhīma, identified with Taila II, the Chālukya king (973-997 A. D.) by Dr. Kielhorn. These deeds bespeak of the bravery of Yādava Bhillama—a general of Taila II

---

1 Nairne, 19; Altekar, the Rashtrakutas and their times, 291.

1 Altekar, 265.

2 Altekar, 272.

2 "The Jainas" A. N. Upadhye, Indo-Asian Culture, II, No. 2, Oct. 1953.

3 Altekar 273.

4 K. A. Pai, Western Chalukyas of Kalyani, 79.

who continued to be in the same position under Satyāshraya[1]. To Brāhmaṇs he gave a family of slaves, servant women and oilmen, who were to enjoy their land rent free and in return serve the Brāhmaṇ[2]. Dashavarman was the second son of Taila II and a direct brother of Satyāshraya. Inscriptions reveal that the name of his wife was Bhāgyavatī or Bhāgavatī Devī. He had by her three sons, Vikrama, Jayasimha and Ayyana and a daughter Akkādevī. Dashavarman stood for the maintenance of all castes and stages of life though he destroyed all distinctions of colour by his fame which pervaded all the regions[3]. Ayyana II who succeeded Vikramāditya V was the Emperor of the world surrounded by the seven oceans[4]".

Under Someshvara IV (1179-1189) the later Chālukyās who had asserted themselves temporarily against the Rāshṭrakūṭās had finally ceased to be a ruling house. Out of the many branches that shot out from these Chālukyās, one had firmly established itself in the Ratnāgirī district. The Tervan[5] endowment reveals the fact that the donor, Keshav Mahājani was the divāṇ of Kāmadev, the Mahāmaṇḍaleshvara. Kāmadev is referred to as "The sun that blows open the lotus bud in the shape of the Chālukya race[6]" in his titles. He is called Kalyāṇ pūrvarādhishvara which means that he belonged to the ruling house of the Kalyāṇ kings. Another branch is referred to in connection with Chālukya Somadev who ruled from Saṅgameshvar in the Ratnāgirī district. Both these inscriptions refer to the same ruling house.

Jayasimha assumed sovereignty over the Chālukyan dominions after his elder brother, Ayyana II. He rewarded Vāsudevarāyasarmā, at his victorious camp at Kolhāpūr, for "warring against the mighty Cholās and after taking away the property of the seven Koṅkaṇs".

The feud between the Chālukyās and the Paramārs had started since Muñjā, the uncle of the king Bhoja of Māḷvā. The plates of A. D. 1020 speak of a grant made by Bhojadeva on a festival in consequence of the conquest of the Koṅkaṇ. From the Betmā plates of the same monarch Bhoja, edited by Dr. Diksalkar, we understand that he was in occupation of the Koṅkaṇ. The Chālukya monarch, earlier had "searched out, beset, pursued, ground down

---

[1] Pai. 80

Some of the 21 Brahmaṇs were students of Rigveda or Sāmaveda while others were members of Maitrayaniya Sakha of the black Yajurveda or Mādhyandina sakhas of the Vijaseneyin branch of the same Veda. Pai, 80.

[2] Khārepāṭaṇ plate–Pai, 81.

[3] The Yevur plate–Pai 84.

[4] Pai, 94.

[5] K. A. Pai, 374.

Tervaṇ is in Rājāpūr Taluka of Ratnāgiri District, Bhandarkar, 192-93.

[6] Bhandarkar R. G. "Early History of the Deccan" (1884), 69.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

LATER CHALUKYAS. (973–1189 A. D.)

and put to flight the confederacy of Māḷvā[1]". Bhoja, however, took on time to recover and took Koṅkaṇ before January 1020 A. D. He, however, annexed his newly conquered territory to his empire some time before September 1020 A. D. But Bhoja was unable to retain Koṅkaṇ and it was snatched away by the Chālukya king before 1024 A. D.[2]

In the confusion that followed the fight between the Paramāras and the Chālukyas, the Koṅkaṇ Silāharās made a vain effort to win independence, with the result that they were crushed and their dominions were seized.

The Mahāmaṇḍaleshvara Gandarāditya of the Karāḍ branch of the Silāhara family was ruling his hereditary possessions in A. D. 1109-10 and 1118-19 under the Chālukya king, Vikramāditya VI (1074; 1076-1127 A. D.[3]). The mighty empire built by Vikramāditya was not destined to last long.

In the short period of 20 years of Kalachurya power there were terrible religious dissensions which paved the way for Someshvara IV's success. The date of his accession goes back to A. D. 1179[4]. Someshvara IV was unable to stem the tide of aggression both from the Hoyasala and the Yādava sides.

YADAVAS OF DEVAGIRI— (1187-1310 A. D.)

Vīrballāḷ Hoyasala (1173-1220 A. D.), the grandson of Vishṇuvardhan (1110-1152 A. D.) defeated Brahmā, the general of the last of the later Chālukyās, Someshvara IV and captured all the territory which that general had taken from Vijval of the Koṅkaṇ[5]. But soon the north Yādava king Bhillam (1183-1193 A. D.) took Shrīvardhan from the king Ansal and became himself the sovereign. However, Vīrballāḷ all the while resisted him. The Khārepāṭaṇ part of Ratnāgirī had been under Bhoja, the Silāhara king of Kolhāpūr branch for some time and Bhoja had been reclaiming his independence but when Vijval of Kalyāṇ endeavoured to subjugate him, Siṅghana (1210-1247 A.D.) the Yādava king, had finally annexed this part by defeating Bhoja[6].

Later Krishṇa ascended the throne in the latter part of A. D. 1247. He continued the foreign policy of his grandfather, which aimed at the expansion of the Sevuna dominions in all directions. He sent his general Chāmuṇḍ against Someshvara, the king of the Hoyasalas. Chāmuṇḍ succeeded in wresting only the Kogali Division, which

---

[1] Pai, 100.

[2] Pai, 103-04.

[3] *Ibid*, 264; also the map given on p. 273.

[4] *Ibid*, 359, 360.

[5] Bhandarkar (Bapat),

[6] Bhandarkar, 259.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

YADAVAS OF DEVAGIRI—(1187-1310 A. D.)

consisted of Hadgalli Taluq in the Bellary District, and the Devanagere Taluq in the Chitaldoorg District, Mysore, and which was situated in the Nolambavadi country. Krishṇa also sent another contingent under Malla against the Silāharās of Northern Koṅkaṇ, who ruled the Ṭhāṇā, Kolābā and Ratnāgirī districts, and the southern part of Surat district. Though Malla claims victory over the king of Koṅkaṇ, who appears to have been the Silāhara Someshvara, he could not make any territorial gain in that direction. Malla also claims to have defeated the Pāṇḍyās, who seem to have been those ruling in Nolambavadi. On the east Krishṇa led his army as far as the South Kosala country, modern Rāipūr and Bilāspur Districts of Madhya Pradesh. During this campaign he seems to have come into clash with the Kākatīya Gaṇapati. He also carried on the traditional hostilities with the Paramāras of Māḷvā and the Vāghelās of Gujarāt, and gained some success. About this time the Sevuna army encountered some Muslim forces, probably those who invaded the Paramāra kingdom in A. D. 1250 under the leadership of Balban. Krishṇa fought successfully with the Ābhirās and two other chiefs, Hendari Rāya and Kāmapāla.

However, the work of conquest was completed by his brother Mahādeva Yādava (1260–1271 A. D.) who succeeded him.

Mahādeva defeated the Silāhara king Someshvara in a naval battle[1]. Mahādeva seems to have appointed one Jaituɟī, the Governor of Northern Koṅkaṇ. Rāmdeva or Rāmarājā, (Rāmchandra), the son of Krishṇa, succeeded Mahādeva and became sovereign of a very vast empire. Alā-ud-din Khiljī attacked him in February 1296 A. D. and after the defeat, Rāmarājā (Rāmchandra) promised to send regular tribute to his court. The Kadambās were also reduced by the Yādavās, from semi-independent chiefs to ordinary Mahāmaṇdaleshvarās. Among the Yādava officials appointed at this time, the records mention Mahāpradhāna Achyuta nāvaka, governing the Sāsāti district, i.e. Sālsette in the Koṅkaṇ in 1272 A. D. and a certain Krishṇadeva, governing the whole of the Koṅkaṇ in 1289 A.D.[2]. It is not known how the present borders of the Ratnāgirī district had been exactly divided between them.

SULTANATE OF DELHI.

The first Muhammedan soldier ventured to cross the Narmadā and a small army invaded the Deccan in 1294[3]; but it was in 1312, when Rāmadeva Yādava died and his son, Saṅgama (Shaṅkaradeva) succeeded him[4], that the dynasty of the Yādavās was ended. Saṅgama's hostility to the Sultanate of Delhi was well-known and

[1] Nīlkanta Sastri, 211.

[2] Moraes, 193-194.

[3] Briggs, Ferishta, I, P. X; Jervis' Konkan, 59.

[4] Nīlkanta Sastri, 221.

CHAPTER 2. History. SULTANATE OF DELHI.

hence, Malik Kāfur (Hagar Dinari), the general of Alā-ud-din Khiljī had "seized the Rājā of Dewgur (Devagirī) and inhumanly put him to death. He then laid waste the countries of Mahārāshṭra and Canara, from Dābul (Dābhoḷ) and Choule (Chaul[1]), as far as Rāchoor and Moodkul". Malik Kafur, however, took up his residence at Devagirī[2] and hence though Ratnāgirī was overrun by the Musalmans and Dābhoḷ seems to have always been held in strength, with their headquarters so far north as Daulatābād, the hold of the early Musalmans was slight. Harapāladeva, Rāmadeva's son-in-law could stir up resistance to the Khiljī rule by "expelling a number of the Muhammedan garrisons[2]". But soon after his accession, Mubārak Khiljī again marched to the south in 1318, with an army led by his favourite slave Khusrau Khān, resolved to retake Devagiri. The reduction of Harapāla involved some hard fighting in the mountainous country[3]. The district, however, continued to remain under its local chiefs. There were petty chiefs on the coast, *nāiks, rājās,* or *rāis* who were, more or less independent[4]. This part was conquered by Bhīmadeva, son of Ramchandra Yādava who divided the whole kingdom of the Koṅkaṇ into fifteen mahals containing 444 villages. His son Pratāp directly ruled over the district but was, soon, deprived of his kingdom by his brother-in-law, a chief of Dābhol, named Nāgar Shah, whom the Muhammedans in their turn defeated[5]. It was not till the Bahamanis declared themselves independent of the Tughluq Sultāns of Delhi, that attempts were made by them to occupy the district. The Koḷī Rājā of Javahar had been extending his power and was recognised in 1341 by the Delhi Government. There were, at this time a number of petty *rājās,* some called *poligars,* Kolis in the North and Marāthās in the South. These chiefs paid allegiance to their overlords as circumstances might require[6]. Another reason for delaying the occupation by the Bahamanī power was the Ameer Judeeda revolution. It was a term given to the newly converted Moghals[7]. They proclaimed one from among themselves, Ismāil Mukh, the Afgāṇ king of the Deccan under the title Nasir-ud-din Shah[8].

---

[1] Nairne, Musalman remains of South Koṅkaṇ, Ind. Anti. II, (Oct. 1873), p. 278.
Briggs Ferishta, I, 379.

[2] *Ibid,* 381; Nilkanta Sastri, 222.
Ibid, 379.

[3] Nilkanta Sastri, Op. cit.

[4] Nairne, 25.

[5] Nairne, 27, 29; Jour. Roy. Asi. Soc. Vol. IV, 1837, Walter Elliot, "Hindu Inscriptions". p. 26.

[5] The chief was Nāgojī Rao, according to a Persian history in the library of the Jañjirā Nawab—Cf. Bom. Gaz. Vol. X, 327.

[5] Nilkanta Sastri, 226.

[6] Nairne, 30; Jervis, 63.

[7] Being foreigners and without any local partialities, they were deemed the best instruments for carrying into effect the orders of a despotic prince. They were bold and high spirited and soon shook off their allegiance. Briggs, Ferishta, I, 429.

[8] Briggs, Ferishta I, 437; Nilkanta Sastri, 232.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE BAHAMANIS.

Sultān Abdul Muzaffar Alā-ud-din Bahamanī Shah crowned himself the king of the Deccan on 3rd August 1347[1]. He ruled till February 1358. The Bahamanī king with his capital at Gulbargā, made South Konkan his natural seaboard[2]. Dābhoḷ became a great port and the resistance of the inland part was broken[3], when the Bahamanī army after its conquest of Goa on its march to Kolhar (Karāḍ) and Kolhāpūr had brought that territory under subjection[4]. Henceforward Dābhoḷ became a flourishing sea port and formed a part of the province of Gulbargā, the capital of the kingdom. The province which extended from Gulbargā as far west as Dābhoḷ and south as far as Rāichūr and Mudgal was placed by Alā-ud-din Hasan Shah under the charge of Malik-saif-ud-din Ghory[5].

Although Dābhoḷ was always held by the Bahamanīs, the rest of the district did not remain under their effective occupation till the last years of the dynasty. Goa seems to have been recovered by the kings of Vijaynagar after its conquest by Alā-ud-din Hasan. Many districts of Taḷghāṭ (Konkaṇ) were held by Vijaynagar[6]. Under Muhammad Shah Bahamanī I (1358-77) the word *silehdār*, so common in the Deccan originated and this seems to answer to the cavalier of Europe—a sort of knight who followed the court mounted on his own horse and in whose train rode one or more attendants. He formed a corps which he styled *bārdārs* whose duties consisted in mustering the troops and in conducting persons to the audience. He had also a band of *Silehdars* composed of 200 youths, selected from among the sons of the nobility to carry the royal armour and weapons[7].

As Muhammad Bahamanī I was fighting the forces of Krishṇadeva Rāo of Vijaynagar, Bairām Khān, Governor of Daulatābad, finding the country unguarded, combined with Govinddeva (Kumbhdeva) a Marāṭhā to raise the standard of revolt. The Chiefs of Berar and the Rājā of Bāgalana secretly sent troops to assist him. Elated by his success, he appropriated for his own use some years' revenues of Mahārāshṭra that Muhammad Shah had deposited in the fortress of Daulatābād, with which he levied troops. Most of the towns and districts of this part fell into his hands, which having divided among his adherents, he, in a short time, collected nearly ten thousand horse and foot[8]. However, order was soon established effectively by Muhammad Shah who now appointed Khān Mahomed to look after this part[9]. Muhammad II gave relief during the famine years 1387 and 1395 and established orphan school at Dābhoḷ[10].

[1] Nilkanta Sastri, op. cit.
[2] Briggs, Ferishta, II, 338; Jervis, 98.
[3] Briggs, *Ibid*; Nilkanta Sastri, 233.
[4] Burhan-i-Ma'asir Persian Text, Hyderabad, page, 28.
[5] Briggs, Ferishta, II, 295, 291, 284; Ind. Ant. II, 279.
[6] *Ibid*, 338.
[7] Briggs, Ferishta, II, 299.
[8] *Ibid*, 317, 321.
[9] *Ibid*, 322, 325, 326.
[10] *Ibid*, 360; Nilkanta Sastri, 236; Ind. Ant., II. 279.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE BAHAMANIS.

During the reign of Ahmad Shah Bahamanī (1422-1436) efforts were made by the Bahamanīs to strengthen their hold on the Koṅkaṇ coast. "In the latter end of the year 833 (1429 A. D.) the king (Ahmad Shah Bahamanī) ordered Malik-ut-Tujār (Khalaf Hasan Basarai) to march into the country of Concan, extending along the coast of the Indian Ocean, in order to clear it of rebels and disturbers of the peace; where in a short time, he executed his instructions so fully, that he brought that country under subjection and sent several elephants and camels loaded with gold and silver, the fruits of his conquests, to court. Ahmad Shah, in reward of his services, conferred on him a suit of his own robes, a sword set with jewels and other gifts such as no servant of the house of Bahamanī had before ever been honoured with[1]".

But the subjugation of the district was never achieved and Malik-ut-Tujār's attack led to nothing but a series of disgraceful defeats there and in other quarters[2]. At the end of his reign (A. D. 1435) Ahmad Shah sent Malik-ut-Tujār to take charge of Dābhoḷ and other towns on the western coast, as the chiefs had refused obedience to the Bahamanī rule[3].

"Ahmad Shah's successor Alā-ud-din who ascended the throne in A. D. 1436 despatched the Prime Minister Dilawar Khān Afgāṇ, in september 1436.

"On the first day of the year 840 (A. D. 1436) Alā-ud-din Shah conferred robes of honour on Dilawar Khān and entrusted him with army to reduce the tract of country along the sea shore called Concan, inhabited by hardy race of men. The Rājāhs of Rairee and Sonkehr, being soon humbled, agreed to pay regular tribute and Dilāwar Khān, having secured the beautiful daughter of the latter Rājāh, for the king, returned to the capital accompanied by her and with some years' arrears of tribute. The king at first was pleased at his services and charmed with Rājāh's daughter who was without equal in beauty, disposition and knowledge of music. He gave her the title of Parichehra (Ferry face) and the fame of their loves became notorious. At length learning that Dilawar Khān had received bribes from the Rājāhs of Concan and had not done his utmost to reduce their fortresses, he became cool towards that minister, who of his own accord resigned the seals of office and by so doing saved himself from danger[4].

"Mullika Jehān, the king's wife (the daughter of Nuseer khān, the ruler of Khāndesh) became jealous of her husband's preference to Parichehra, who was the daughter of the Rājāh of Saṅgameshvar[5] and

---

[1] Briggs, Ferishta II 413; Nairne, 30, Nilkanta Sastri, 241.

[2] Briggs, Ibid, 413; Nilkanta Sastri, 241.

[3] Briggs, Ibid, 424.

[4] Op. cit; Nairne, 31; Ind. Ant. II, 279, 318.

[5] Nilkanta Sastri, 242.

offended with his coolness towards her, wrote letters of complaint to her father. Nuseer khān hence projected the conquest of the Bahamanī territory and Deccan Chiefs unanimously resolved to join him[1].

"A great disaster befell the Bahamanī army in the year 1453. As the army marched through Concan on an expedition to Khelṇā, the massacre of the army by the Shirkes seems to have occurred in the district. According to Ferishta " at this time Meamun-Oolla Deccany formed a plan for reducing to subjection all the fortresses along the sea-coast. To effect this, the king deputed Mullik-oot-Toojār, with 7000 Deccany infantry, and 3000 Arabian cavalry, besides his own division, to the westward. Mullik-oot-Toojār, fixing upon Chākaṇ as his seat of government, secured the fort near the city of Joonere, from whence he sent detachments, at different times, into Concan and reduced several rājāhs to subjection. At length he moved to that country in person, and laid siege to a fort the Rājāh of which was named Sirkā[2], whom he speedily obliged to surrender and to deliver himself and family into his hands.".

"Mullik-oot-Toojār insisted that Shirke should embrace the faith of Islam, or be put to death; upon which the subtle infidel, with much assumed humility, represented that there existed between him and Shunkur Ray (the Rāi of Saṅgameshvar), who owned the country around the fortress of Khelṇā[3], a family jealousy and that should he enter into the pale of Islam, and his rival remain secure in the full possession of power, he would on the general's retreat, taunt him with ignominy on account of his change of religion, and excite his own family and subjects to revolt; so that he should lose the countries his ancestors had held for ages. Rājāh Shirke added, however, that if Mullik-oot-Toojār would reduce his rival, Shunkur Ray (Rāi of Saṅgameshvar) of Khelṇā, and give his country either to himself or to one of his officers, which might be effected with little difficulty, he would then pronounce the creed of the true faith, become enrolled among the servants of the king, and remit annually a tribute to his treasury, as well as assist in reducing those Rājāhs who might hereafter fail in their duty and allegiance. Mullik-oot-Toojār replied, that he heard the road to the Ray's country was woody and full of difficult passes. To which Shirke answered, that while there was a guide with the army so faithful and capable as himself, not a single soul should receive injury. Accordingly, Mullik-oot-Toojār, relying on the promises of the Rājāh, in the year 858 (A. D. 1453) began his expedition against Khelṇā, but was deserted in the outset by most of the Deccany and Abyssinian officers and troops, who declined entering the woods. Rājāh Shirke, agreeably to his promise, during the

[1] Briggs, Ferishta, II, 436; Nairne, 31.

[2] Sirkā, or more properly Sirkay, (the Sirkay of the author of the excellent Marāṭhā history) is the name of one of the most ancient families of the Concan. The mother of the (present) Rājāh of Sātārā was of that house. Briggs Ferishta II, 436.

[3] Vishālghar.

first two days conducted the army along a broad road, so that the general praised his zeal and fidelity; but on the third day he led them by paths so intricate, that the male tiger, from apprehension, might change his sex, and through passes more fortuitous than the curly locks of the fair, and more difficult to escape from than the mazes of love. Demons even might start at the precipices and caverns in those wilds, and ghosts might be panic-struck at the awful view of the mountains. Here the sun never enlivened with its splendour the valleys, nor had Providence designed that it should penetrate their depths. The very grass was tough and sharp as the fangs of serpents, and the air fetid as the breath of dragons. Death dwelt in the waters, and poison impregnated the breeze. After winding, weary and alarmed, through these dreadful labyrinths, the army entered darker forest, a passage through which was difficult even to the winds of heaven. It was bounded on three sides by mountains, whose heads towered above the clouds, and on the other side was an inlet of the ocean, so that there was no path by which to advance nor road for retreat, but that by which they had entered[1]".

"Mullik-oot-Toojār at this crisis fell ill of bloody flux, so that he could not attend to the regularity of the line of march, or give orders for the disposition of his troops, who being excessively fatigued, about night-fall flung themselves down to rest whenever they could find room, for there was no spot which admitted of two tents being pitched near each other. While the troops were thus scattered in disorder, Shirke, their treacherous guide, left them and communicated to Shunkur Ray (the Rāi of Saṅgameshvar) that he had lured the game into his foils. The Ray, with a great force conducted by Shirke, about mid-night attacked the Musalmans from all quarters, who, unsuspicious of surprise, were buried in the sleep produced by excessive exertions. In this helpless state, nearly seven thousand soldiers of the faithful were put to death, like sheep, with knives and daggers; the wind blowing violently, the rustling of the trees prevented the troops from hearing the cries of their fellow-sufferers. Among these was Mullik-oot-Toojār, who fell with five hundred noble Syuds of Medina, Kurbullā and Nujuf; as also some few Deccany and Abyssinian officers, together with about two thousand of their

[1] The above passage has been given literally, in order to afford a sample of the author's style. The description is very characteristic of the general features of the Concan country, though it is not easy to fix the exact spot into which the Muhammedan army was led to its destruction.

adherents, who had remained with their general. Before day light the Ray, having completed his bloody work, retired with his people from the forest[1]".

This disaster was not avenged for sixteen years, a fact which shows how little hold the Musalmans had on this district. The Rājāh of Saṅgameshvar, Jakhurai, grew in power and strength. He was the master of a number of impregnable forts, chiefs of which were Kheḷṇā and Rāṅgṇā. He maintained a fleet of nearly three hundred vessels, which as Gāvān states in one of his letters, preyed upon merchants and travellers with the result that "some thousands of Muslims were sacrificed at the altar of the greed of these people[2]".

The influence of Vijaynagar extended far to the north of Goa. Extensions of territory in the north-west were achieved under Harihara II (1377-1404). The ports of Goa, Chaul and Dābhoḷ were taken from the Muslims, as also Khārepāṭaṇ; and the Krishṇā river became the northern frontier of Vijaynagar for a time[3]. But Mallikārjuna (1447-1465) had left behind an infant son Rajashekhara and the throne was occupied by his cousin Virupāksha II, who was given over to vice[4].

The next events recorded of Dābhoḷ are of a different sort, but not less calculated to show its importance in the 15th century. Mahmud Khān Gāvan, who afterwards became the celebrated minister of the Bidar Government, came from Persia as a merchant and landed at

---

[1] *Note.*—The exact place where this massacre took place has never been ascertained, but Grant Duff thinks that it was not very far from Vishāḷgaḍ, which is so probable, not only from the Rājāh of that place being so particularly mentioned but also from the nature of the country described. There were very few parts of the southern Koṅkaṇ where an army of 10,000 men could march without the greatest difficulty; and the tract of country lying beneath and a little to the north of Vishaḷgaḍ, between the towns of Saṅgameshvar and Lāñjā is almost the only open plain of any extent in the collectorate. Anywhere across this an army might easily have marched for two days, but it would need but a slight deviation either to the west towards Sitavali or to the east towards Vishāḷgaḍ itself, to get into the hills and gorges which in these days must almost have come up to the description given by Ferishta. If it be a fact that an inlet of the ocean was on one side, then the immediate neighbourhood of Sitavali would answer the description; otherwise, as to the closeness of the valleys and the height of the hills, Prabhanvali seems the most likely place. At all events it is most probable that the massacre took place somewhere in the country which lies beneath and in front of the most projecting point of Vishāḷgaḍ—Ind. Ant. II, (Nov. 1873), 318. The family of Shirke had, probably from very ancient times and upto 1768, their court at Bahirugal, in this district, as Rājāhs of the surrounding country yielding at that period a revenue of Rs. 75,000 a year. Grant Duff states that Konkaṇ Ghāṭmāthā also belonged to this family—Nairne, 31.

[1] Nilkanta Sastri, 243.

[1] Nairne, 31; Indian Antiquary, II, (Nov. 1873), 318-319.

[1] Briggs, Ferishta, II, 436, 440.

[2] Riyazul Insha Persian Text, pp. 173-175.

[3] Nilkanta Sastri, 257.

[4] *Ibid.*, 262.

CHAPTER 2. History. THE BAHAMANIS.

Dābhoḷ in 1447. About 1459 Yusuf Adil Khān, the founder of the Bijāpūr dynasty, also entered India at Dābhoḷ[1].

The Bahamanīs sought to consolidate their hold on the Koṅkaṇ, capture Goa and hasten the destruction of Vijaynagar which was their principal aim[2]. After the affairs with the kingdom of Maḷvā had been settled, the Bahamanī Sultān Muhammad Shah decided to undertake a campaign against the Koṅkaṇ[3]. On his requēst Mahmud Gāvān was appointed to lead the campaign. Followed by a large army he arrived at Kolhāpūr in 1470 A. D. and camped there. He sent for the detachments posted in the neighbouring districts. Āsad Khān brought his troops from Junnar and Chākaṇ, Kishvar Khān arrived with his army from Dābhoḷ and Karāḍ. With this army, Mahmud Gāvān marched against the chiefs. As the country was full of forests, he employed his men in cutting down the trees and clearing out roads.

When the chiefs learnt of the activities of Mahmud Gāvān, they combined together and marching against him put up a determined resistance. Nearly fifty battles were fought between the armies of Islam and the chiefs[4].

Mahmud Gāvān laid siege to the fort to Kheḷṇā. The siege was considerably prolonged. Gāvān was bent upon reducing the chiefs. As he heard that they had already approached influential persons in the capital, he agreed to the following terms :—

The fort of Rāṅgṇā should be surrendered: An indemnity of Rs. 12,00,000 should be paid, and the son of Jaku should arrive in the Bahamanī camp.

---

1 Yusuf Adil Shah, founder of the kingdom of Bijāpūr (Adilshāhī dynasty), was the son of one of the emperors of Asia Minor, of the Ottoman family. Sultān Mahomed gave orders to kill his brother Yusuf, then a child, to avoid further commotions in the empire in future. But the queen mother managed to send the boy to Sāvā with the help of the merchant of Sāvā named Khwājā Imād-ud-din. To avoid further difficulty of the secret of his birth being divulged, at his age of 16, he left Kooni and finally reached Dābhoḷ in the year 864. On his arrival there he became acquainted with Khwājā Mahmood Goorjistāny, a merchant who had come to that part on business. Yusuf's appearance and manners (being at that time only 17 years of age) were at once striking and engaging for he had received liberal education at Sāvā. The Khwājā prevailed on Yusuf to accompany him to Bidur, where he was sold as a Georgian slave, to the minister Khwājā Mahmud Gāvān, for the royal body guard. This Yusuf Adil Shah, a son of Murād II, Sultan of Constantinople, described Dābhoḷ as possessing the delight of paradise—Briggs, Ferishta II, 3; 7: and III, 7; Ind. Ant. II, 279; Nairne, 33.

3 Nilkanta Sastri, 245.

In particular, Mahmud Gāvān wanted to prevent the Rājāhs of Kheḷṇā (Visālgarh) and Saṅgameshvar from using their fleets off the west cost to harass Muslim merchants and pilgrims—Nīlkanta Sastri, *ibid*.

4 Burhan-i-Ma'asir, p. 115, Persian Text; Nairne, 31-32.

The terms had been agreed upon when the chiefs realised that once the fort of Rāṅgṇā was surrendered, with the help of their army posted in Chākaṇ, Karāḍ and other places, the Bahamanīs would not only conquer Saṅgameshvar, but would be able to occupy a considerable territory belonging to Vijaynagar, they turned away from the agreement.

The result was that as the siege of Kheḷṇā dragged on, the rains set in, Gāvān was forced to raise the siege and retire to contonment for the rainy season. He, however, ensured that no provision or any article should be allowed to reach the enemy country[1].

After the rains had subsided, Gāvān marched against the fort of Rāngṇā. The fort was strong and Gāvan feared that it could not be conquered without considerable loss in men. He tried other methods. The enemy was offered "Firankish cloth, both studded with jewels, palanquins, Arab steed and arms of the most exquisite pattern[2]".

The fort of Raṅgṇā came into the possession of the Bahamanīs, on the 19th July 1470 A. D.

Gāvān then marched to the fort of Māchol. The fort was stormed and taken after a stiff fight. Gāvān next turned towards the fort of Kheḷṇā. The Rājāh was hard pressed. He sent his own son to negotiate peace. The fort surrendered on 10th November 1470. The Rājāh was left with a small territory to maintain himself. The rest of the possessions of Saṅgameshvar were occupied and placed under the Bahamanī officers. The forts of Bulvāṛā Miriad and Nagar were also captured. The subjugation of Saṅgameshvar was completed on 12th December 1471. Gāvān next marched to Goa with the forces of Dābhoḷ which was annexed to the Bahamanī kingdom on the 1st February, 1472.

With the conquest of Goa Gāvān's campaign of the Koṅkaṇ came to a close. This time the Bahamanī occupation of the district was complete. No resistance to the Bahamanīs is noted till the break-up of the kingdom[3].

The district was placed under the charge of Gāvān's general Khush Qadam who already held the territory of Dābhoḷ and Karāḍ under him[4].

---

[1] Riyazul Insha Persian Text, Hyderabad, p. 249.
Briggs. Ferishta, II, 484-485.

[2] Riyazul Insha Persian Text, Hyderabad, pp. 122-123

[3] Ind. Ant, II, 319.

[3] Nairne, 32; Nilkanta Sastri; op. cit.

[4] Briggs, Ferishta, II, 484, 485.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE BAHAMANIS.

The port of Dābhoḷ continued to flourish as a sea-port throughout this period. The Russian traveller, Athanasius Nikitin, who was in the Deccan from 1469-1474, had landed at Chaul and from what he heard there, wrote as follows :—"Dabul (Dābhoḷ) is a very extensive sea-port where many horses are brought from Misr (Egypt—not Mysore), Rabast (Arabia), Khorassan, Turkestan and Neghortan, and all nations living along the coast of India and Ethiopia met. It takes a month to walk by land from this place to Bedur and Kulburga. It is the last sea-port in Hindostan belonging to the Musalmans[1]". Three years later he made Dābhoḷ his port of embarkation and from here took ship to Hormuz, paying two pieces of gold for his passage and spending a month at sea. He, then wrote, "Dābhoḷ is a port of the vast Indian sea .... It is a very large town, the great meeting place of all nations living on the coast of India[2]".

From 1475, for three years, there was famine in this part and scarcely any farmers remained to cultivate the land. No grain was sown for two years[3]. In 1478 the four Governments of the Deccan were increased to eight and in this division all this part of the Konkaṇ was put under the Governor of Junnar, a place although sufficiently distant, was yet nearer to the district than any previous provincial capital[4].

Kishvar Khān transferred the charge to Najmuddin Gilāni. After his death one of his officers Bahādur Gilāni succeeded him. Taking advantage of the disorders prevailing in the Bahamanī following the execution of Mahamud Gāvān on 5th April 1451, Bahādur Gilāni seized the entire district up to Dābhoḷ, besides Kolhāpūr, Panhāḷā Karāḍ, Sirāla and Belgaum[5]. He even advanced to Chaul which lay in the territory of Malik Ahmad, the founder of the Nizām Shāhī dynasty of Ahmadnagar[6]. Malik Ahmad had been besieging the seaport of Dāṇḍā-Rājpurī, when he heard of the assassination of his father. He raised the siege for the time being and returned to Junnar where he assumed the title of Ahmad-Nizām-ul-Mulk Bheiry[7]. After the victory of Bāgh Nizām, Ahmad Nizām Shah again took the seaport of Dāṇḍā Rājpurī, which after a long siege he reduced and thus secured the peaceable possession of the Konkaṇ[8], in 1490. In like manner Yusuf Ādil Shah in 1489 founded the Ādil Shāhī dynasty of Bijāpūr. But Bahādur Gilānī was still unsubdued[9].

---

[1] The Hakluyt Society, 1857. "India in the 15th century—The Travels of Athanasious Nikitin of Tuer, p. 19-20.

[1] Ind. Ant. II, 279; Nilkanta Sastri, 32, 252, 306; Nairne, 31.

[2] Ind. Ant. II, 279.

[3] Briggs, Ferishta II, 493-94.

[4] Briggs.*Ibid.*, 502; Nairne, 32. The tract was placed under Fukhr-ul-mulk.

[5] Nairne, 32; Briggs, *ibid*, 535, 345; IV, 72.

[6] Briggs. *Ibid.*, III, 192-93.

[7] Briggs. *Ibid.*, III, 192, 191.

[8] Briggs. *Ibid.*, 198-99; Nairne, 32.

[9] Briggs, *Ibid.*, III, 10, 14.

The sack of Mahim (Bombay) by Bahādur Gilāni in 1493 brought upon him the wrath of the Sultān of Gujarāt Mahmud Begḍa to whom that port belonged. At last Muhammad Shah Bahamani II resolved to march against Bahādur Gilāni. Bahādur Khān Gilāni had attempted to make himself independent and among other towns, had for a long time, possession of Dābhoḷ and Goa and command of the whole coast[1]. Following the success of Muhammad Shah, Bahādur Khān's affairs declined daily, till at length he fled to the fortress of Panhāḷā, the strongest place in his possession. The king not wishing to sit down before it halted at Kolāpore, intending to proceed from thence to Dābhoḷ and amuse himself in the sea; upon which Bahādur Khān quitted Panhāḷā, with a design to lie in wait for the king on his route. In the end, however, not daring to execute his plan, he fled and becoming humble, asked for pardon. But on the arrival of the respectable persons sent by the king in his camp, his evil stars would not allow him to submit. Bahādur Khān advanced to meet Khwājā Jehān with 2,000 horse and 15,000 foot, but was killed by an arrow[2] on 5th November 1494. The forces of Bidur were assisted by those of Ahmadnagar and Bijāpūr and at the suggestion of Qāsim Bareed, Bahādur Khān's estate was conferred on Malik Ain-ul-Mulk Kanāni[3] and after this, the king and a few of his principal nobles marched down to Dabhoḷ and enjoyed the novel amusement of sailing about up and down the coast[4].

Ain-ul-Mulk held charge of the district as an officer of the Bahamanis for nearly four years.

Shortly afterwards, Imād-ul-Mulk of Berar, Malik Ahmad of Junnar and Yusuf Ādil Khān of Bijāpūr agreed to divide the country amongst themselves. Yusuf Ādil Khān was to receive among others the territory possessed by Ain-ul-Mulk, the Governor of Konkaṇ.

"Yusuf Ādil Khān, in pursuance of this treaty, in order to ascertain if Ain-ul-Mulk were content to be dependent on his authority, dispatched an order commanding him to his presence, whereas he had always before addressed him on terms of equality. Ain-ul-Mulk received the order with joyful submission, declaring that now he was convinced. Yusuf Ādil Khān regarded him as loyal, by putting his submission to the test. He made a festival of a week in the port of Goa on the occasion and repaired with six thousand horse to Bijāpūr, where Yusuf Ādil Khān received him as one of his subjects, exacting those salutations from him made only to crowned heads, and then conferred on him an honorary dress[5]".

---

1 Ind. Ant. II, 280.

2 Briggs, Ferishta II, 542-543; Nairne, 33; Ind. Ant. 279.

3 Nilkanta Sastri, 251.

4 Briggs, Ferishta II, 543; Ind. Ant. II, 280; Nairne, 32.

5 Briggs, *Ibid*, III, 19.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
THE BAHAMANIS.

The district, thus, passed into the hands of the Ādil Shāhī dynasty of Bijāpūr in 1498 A. D.[1] The small States such as Sangameshvar, Pālvaṇ, Prabhāvatī continued, likewise, during the period of the Ādil Shāhī dynasty. They lost their semi-independent status of the Bahamanī period and became feudatories of the Sultāns of Bijāpūr.

In 1502 the Ādil Shāhī subhedar of the province which extended from the Sāvitrī to Devgaḍ, including the whole of the Ratnāgirī district gave grants to the Khots for the occupation and reclamation of waste lands, thus encouraging the former landholders to occupy their land and improve the district[2].

A new power now appeared on the scene. They were the Portuguese.

THE PORTUGUESE. 1500 TO 1600.

With the rise of the Portuguese in India, a conflict between them and the Indian powers was inevitable. The Rājās of Goa, Dābhoḷ and Chaul had encouraged emigration from Arabia and these first Muhammedans were elevated to public offices. This had already given umbrage to the Christians and the jews who became their determined enemies, yet as the country of the Deccan and Gujarāt was gradually

---

[1] Op. cit; Ind. Ant. II, 280; Nairne, 33.

[2] Nairne, 34; Jervis, 75, 83.

Note.—Under the Bahamanīs, Dābhoḷ was known as Mustafābād but since 1489, under the Bijāpūr Government, Dābhoḷ was made the head-quarters of a district very closely corresponding to the present Ratnāgirī district (Jervis, 75). Yusuf Ādil Shah had deputed Mustafā Khān to administer the *subhedāri* of Dābhoḷ. Thus earliest recorded land revenue settlement of Ratnāgirī was in 1502 (Jervis, 90, 75, 76). But Mukund Rao Marāṭhā and his brother, who had both been officers under the Bahamanī Government had with a number of peasants fled and taken up a strong position amidst the hills with the determination of opposing the Authority of newly established Yusuf Ādil Shah. Yusuf accordingly marched against them at the head of 2,000 cavalry and 5,000 infantry. They were defeated and their families fell into the hands of the king. Among these was sister of Mukund whom Yusuf afterwards espoused and gave her the title of Booboojee Khanum. By this lady he had three daughters and one son, Ismāel, who succeeded to the throne. Muryam, the eldest married Burhān Nizām Shāh Bheiry of Ahmadnagar; Khoddeija, the second married Alā-ud-din Imā-ul-mulk, king of Gavul and Berar and Beeby Museety, the third married Ahmad Shah Bahamanī of Kulburga—(Briggs, Ferishta, III, 31). Again, sometime before 1504, Kāsim Bereed, the founder of Bereed Shāhī, had distinguished himself by his bravery against the rebel Marāthās residing between Peitun (Paiṭhaṇ) and Chākaṇ whom he was deputed to reduce. One action in particular took place, in which Kāsim Bereed was victorious and having slain Sābājee Marāṭhā, the king (Bahamanī-Sultān Mohamad Shah) gave the deceased chief's daughter in marriage to Kāsim Bereed's son, Ameer Bereed, as a reward for his services. Sābājee's territory was conferred on him and upwards of 400 marāṭhās, who were connected with the late chief entered his services, many of whom he persuaded to embrace Islam. He declared, with their help his independence but died in 1504. (Briggs, Ferishta, III, 495-496).

brought under Muhammedan subjection, their enemies were unable to do these Arabian settlers any material injury until the Portuguese invaded India[1].

Vārthema in 1503 speaks of Dābhoḷ as extremely good, surrounded by walls in the European fashion, containing a great number of Moorish merchants and governed by a pagan king, a great observer of justice[2]. Dābhoḷ commanded a sufficiently great naval force as it is evident from the fact that when the Rājā of Calicut solicited help from the Deccan Rājās and sent ambassadors to Egypt against the Portuguese because they waged war against the Muhammedans. Dābhoḷ fleet co-operated with the admiral Munsoor Ghory, sent by the Caliph of Egypt, along with the fleet of Mahmud Shāh of Gujarāt, in opposing the Portuguese at Chaul. However the Arab vessels fell in the hands of the Portuguese[3].

In 1507 Dom Lourenco de Almeida destroyed seven vessels of the Moors in the port of Chaul because they entered without returning his salute. He then went to Dābhoḷ "where he discovered the Calicut fleet a short distance up the river". The Portuguese, however, did not engage the fleet which left Dābhoḷ. When the Portuguese fleet had proceeded about four leagues, the leading vessels espied a ship sailing up a river and two of them followed until it cast anchor opposite to a town (probably Jaygaḍ) where there were several other vessels. Seeing the chase, Dom Lourenco sent a galley after them, and the three together began to clear the shore of many natives assembled there; proceeding up the river they burnt all the ships in the harbour, excepting two laden with riches from Ormuz, which they carried away. They also burnt a house on shore that was full of much valuable merchandise[4].

Far more serious was the Portuguese attack on Dābhoḷ in 1508 A.D. The Portuguese in 1508 A. D. "proceeded to Dābhoḷ, then a place

---

1 These settlers were given the appellation of Nowoyits which literally means, the new race. (Briggs, IV, 533-34).

2 *Bom. Gaz.* X, 328, (Cf. Badger's Vārthema, 115)

3 In 1508, the kings of Gujarat and Egypt entered into an alliance against the Portuguese, Ind. Ant., III, 100 (April 1874).

Briggs, *Ferishta*, IV, 536, 74, 75; Nairne, 43.

Briggs, Extracts from Faria-e-Souza's history, Ferishta. III, 507 (The account differs slightly).

James Bird, History of Gujarat, 214-215.

4 Danvers, Portuguese in India, I, 126; Nairne, 43-44; (The commander is referred to as Don Lorenzo d'Almuda); Briggs, III, 506.

A. J. L. Sequeira, *Ibid.*, 78.

Dābhoḷ was one of the most noted coast towns with a considerable trade and stately and magnificent buildings, girt with a wall, surrounded by country houses and fortified by a strong castle garrisoned by 8,000 men of whom 500 were Turks. Before it was pillaged by the Portuguese, Dābhoḷ was De Castro says, a very large and noble settlement, the emporium of all India, thronged by the Persians, Arabs and traders from Cambay.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE PORTUGUESE.

of great trade and considerable wealth, with the intention of attacking it. The Portuguese fleet entered this port on the 30th December[1] and at their approach the garrison was increased and every preparation made to meet an attack. The Portuguese at once landed and dividing themselves into three bodies, attacked the three gates of the city simultaneously. These were all defended with desperate valour. Whilst the attack was proceeding, the viceroy sent Nuno Vaz Pareira to gain entrance by another way, which he succeeded in doing in spite of a resolute resistance. The enemy seeing themselves thus taken in flank at once broke and fled, some to the mosque and others to the mountains. The fight lasted about five hours, during which 1500 of the defenders were killed, but only sixteen Portuguese. The next morning the viceroy gave leave to plunder, but this was hindered by the firing of the town and in a few hours it was reduced to a heap of ashes. The booty taken only amounted to 15,000 ducats. It was afterwards ascertained that the viceroy had ordered the town to be destroyed, fearing that if his soldiers realised too great riches, they might be unwilling to follow him in carrying out his further designs.

"The ships in the harbour fared the same fate as the town. The fleet left Dābhoḷ on the 5th January 1509[2].

Those who escaped, came back and restored the city. But Saṅgameshvar had been now the headquarters of the Bijāpur Governor. Barbosa (1514) speaks of it as *Singuicar*, a town of much commerce and merchandise with many ships from diverse ports and was known for its ship-building activities. It was also, though this was probably at Jaygaḍ at the river mouth, a great stronghold of pirates[3].

"The Portuguese captured Goa on the 4th March 1510. The Sultān of Bijāpur made preparations to recapture the fort. He was assisted in this enterprise by the Rājāh of Saṅgameshvar". Whilst he was thus engaged Albuquerque received a letter from Mandalay, Lord of Condal (Kuḍāḷ) informing him that Bāḷojī, Lord of Pervalay and of the kingdom of Saṅgameshvar, was in communication with Rocalkhān, a captain of the Cabaio, and with Melique Ratao, Lord of Carrapetao (Khārepāṭaṇ) and that all these three had sent their ambassadors to Adilkhān, desiring him to furnish them with men, in order that they might, with that assistance, make a descent on the Portuguese with

[1] Faria-de-Souza states the date as 20 December 1508—Briggs, Ferishta, III, 507.

A. J. L. Sequeira, *Ibid.*, 80.

Don Francisco Almeida left Goa with a fleet of nineteen vessels and 1600 men of which 800 were natives. Briggs, extracts from Faria-de-Souza, Ferishta, III, 507.

[2] A. J. L. Sequeira, *Ibid.*, 53, 81.

Danvers, Portuguese in India, I, 140; Ind Ant., II, 280; Nairne, 44.

[3] *Bom. Gaz.* X. 372 cf. Stanley, Barbosa and Decoutto, XII, 30,

a view to the recapture of Goa. He also stated that Bājojī was already at Banda with 2,000 men intending to defend that land on behalf of the Adilkhān[1]."

During the peace parleys[2] before the assault on Goa, Albuquerque advised the Sultān of Bijāpur to raise the siege and "surrender Dābhoḷ to the Portuguese, that they might erect a fortress at that place[3]".

Although the Sultān captured Goā, it was retaken by the Portuguese, on 25th November 1510.

Efforts on the part of the Sultāns of Bijāpur to recapture Goa from the Portuguese continued throughout the 16th century but without success. The Portuguese retaliated by blockading and attacking the port of Dābhoḷ and other places in the district thus seriously affecting the coastal trade of the region.

---

[1] A. J. L. Sequeira, 151.

Danvers Portuguese in India, I, 192; Ind. Ant. II, 280.

[2] *Note.*—It is not likely that the Portuguese in the beginning of the 16th century with all their great schemes would have troubled themselves about Ratnāgiri district, if there had not been in it ports and marts of too great importance to be left in the hands of their enemies, the Turks. But Chaul and Dābhol could not be so left, while the Portuguese could not spare men enough to establish themselves in these ports in the same ways as they had determined to do at Goa. The state of the Muhammedan kingdoms which divided the Konkaṇ among them, was however at this time entirely favourable to the designs of the Portuguese. The Northern Konkan as far south as Nagothne had belonged to Gujarat but the southern Konkaṇ had only just been divided between the dynasties of Bijāpur and Ahmadnagar. The rivalry which existed between these two was probably the cause of the Portuguese first obtaining a footing in the Konkaṇ. The Ahmadnagar king, who had possession of the coast from Nagothne to Bankot, admitted them into Chaul and at a very early date accepted the protection of their fleet for the vessels which frequented his ports, and for that protection paid them a tribute and allowed them to establish a factory at Chaul. This was between 1512 and 1521. And by the latter year the Portuguese had obtained permission to build a small fort there and had command of the whole river. The captaincy of the fortress was already an important appointment in 1524 when Vasco de Gama took charge of the viceroyalty there, as the first port touched at. On the other hand the Bijāpur king was too powerful on the coast to accept the protection or acknowledge the supremacy of the Portuguese fleet and the consequence was that Dābhoḷ was destroyed. On several subsequent occasions, the destruction, was repeated; for Dabhol was so great a place of resort for ships from Malabar and Arabia that it very soon recovered its importance. The Gujarat fleet was also attacked by the allied forces of the Portuguese and Ahmadnagar. Ferishta says that in 1510 Goa was ceded by the king of Bijāpur to the Portuguese as the condition of their not molesting the other towns on the coast and that they kept this treaty. The Portuguese historians, however, give a very different account; for according to themselves they were constantly marauding Dābhoḷ. Nairne, 45-46; Ind. Art. II, 280. The Sultān of Bijāpur offered a friend by alliance if the Portuguese would protect the import of horses into Dābhoḷ.

[3] Danvers, Ibid, I, 195.

A. J. L. Sequeira, the relations between the Portuguese and the Sultāns of Bijāpur, 52, 53, 166.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE PORTUGUESE.

In 1512, Albuquerque commanded Garcia de Gousa to take certain ships and cruise off the bar of Dābhoḷ and not permit a single vessel to go into or out of, the port with the object of making war upon Ādilkhān, wherever he was able to prevail against him[1].

The ambassador sent by Prestes Joao, king of Abyssinia arrived at Dābhoḷ. He came in a ship from Zeila but when he came to the port of Dābhoḷ, he was detained by the Governors of the city who refused to give him up without the consent of the Sultāns of Bijāpur. They immediately wrote to the court of Bijāpur of his arrival and detention. D. Gracia de Noronha sent Estevao de Freitas to Goa informing Alfanso de Albuquerque of what had happened. Estevao de Freitas was immediately sent back with the reply that he should be sent on to Goa. D. Gracia de Noronha requested the Governors to give him up to him, at the same time informing them of the orders sent by Albuquerque. They were reluctant to hand him over but fearing that the Portuguese might back up the request with force, they delivered him up.[1a]

In 1514, the trade of Dābhoḷ was again interfered with by the Portuguese. Albuquerque "irritated at his (Ādilshah's) conduct in giving shelter in his kingdom to certain Portuguese of low degree, and treating them with honour and distinction sent a secret message to Duarte de Gousa, who was cruising off Dābhoḷ in a galley, that, acting as though he had mutinied, he was to take possession of all the ships of the Moors which might put into that port even if they carried the Portuguese safe conduct[2]."

The district suffered much from the marauding expeditions of the Portuguese as in 1522, the Portuguese landed and levied a contribution on Dābhoḷ[3]. The Gujarat admiral, Mulik Eiaz continued for many days off the ports and interrupted all communications between the persons constructing the factory on shore (at Chaul) and the Portuguese fleet[4].

"The disagreements between Bahādur Shāh (Gujarāt) and Boorhan Nizām Shāh I, being now at an end, the latter was at leisure to attend to the administration of his dominions and accordingly by the wise policy of Kanhu Narsi, he reduced in a very short time (1531) thirty forts belonging to the Marāṭhā Rājās who had not paid allegiance since the death of Ahmad Nizām Shah; after which he enlisted them in his service, giving them back their lands in *jageer*, on condition that they should supply troops[5].

---

[1] Danvers, Ibid, I, 253; A. J. L. Sequeira, 313.

[1a] A. J. L. Sequeira, O. C.; 319.

[2] Ibid, 302; still the Muhammedan hold on Dābhoḷ was not less stiff. In 1515, a Persian Ambassador had embarked at Dābhoḷ on his way back from Bijāpur—Ind. Ant. II, 280.

[3] Ind. Ant.; II, 280; A. L. J. Sequeira, Ibid, 60.

[4] Briggs, Ferishta, III, 512, 513; Bird, History of Gujarat, 237.

[5] Briggs, *Ibid*, III, 226.

The Portuguese built the fort of Revadaṇḍā[1]. In 1547 Joao de Castro made treaties both with Ahmadnagar and Vijayanagar, offensive and defensive, against Bijāpur. The Portuguese were bound to defend the coast of the Ahmadnagar kingdom against pirates, in return for which they were to receive as payment sailors' provisions and timber for their ships. The treaty with Vijayanagar contained also many stipulations as to trade. Both stipulated against the ports of this coast being open to or any help being given to fleets or ships of the Turks[2]. Immediately after these treaties followed the Portuguese expedition of 1547[3], which seems to have exceeded all previous ones in cruelty and severity, for every place between Goa and Shrivardhan is said to have been burnt by the Portuguese, Dābhoḷ being always the first place to suffer[4]. In 1547 A. D. "The Governor sailed with 160 ships along the coast of Por and Mongalor, burning and destroying the beautiful cities of Pāṭe and Paṭane together with the vessels in these ports. He did the same to Dābhoḷ, and then returned to Goa, laden with a rich booty taken at those places[5]". In January 1548, he reduced Dābhoḷ to ashes[6].

In 1556 A.D., Miquel Rodriques Coutinho continued "going to the territories of Salsette and Bardes against some troops of the Ādilkhān .... destroyed all the sea ports with fire and the sword, and captured a large number of ships. Having killed a number of the enemy, made many prisoners, and captured some valuable goods from a large Mecca vessel at Dābhoḷ after a sharp engagement, he returned with honours and riches to Goa[7]".

[1] Briggs, Ibid, III, 522; IV, 538.
[2] Nairne, 47, Cf. Annaes Maratimos-e-Colonials (1884), 69, 72.
[3] A. J. L. Sequeira, Ibid, 61 400/401. The treaty with Vijayanagar on 19th September 1547 and the treaty with Iniza Maxa (Nizam shah) on 6th October 1547.
[3] Dābhoḷ and Bāṇkoṭ were still important places and the Gujarat army had left these waters in possession of the Portuguese. The Bijāpur Governor of Saṅgameshvar scheming to make himself independent asked for but was refused the Portuguese help. Asad Khān of Belgaum endeavoured to induce Don Garcia, the Governor General of Goa to deliver over the prince Mullo Khan of Bijapur into his hands. Asad Khān promised to make over Koṅkaṇ, yielding a million sterling, to gain his purpose. But Asad died and the Portuguese agreed to deliver the prince to his brother. Dom Joao de Castro, under the name of Beicoim describes (1540) the Bāṇkoṭ river with great detail. It took the name Beicoim from a town on the south bank about a league from the river mouth. Ships went there to load wheat and many other kinds of food and had its harbour not been so difficult, it would have been one of the first places on the coast. Briggs, Ferishta, III, 516-517, Bom. Gaz. X, 372, 321. X'avier arrived in India in 1544 and once visited Khārepāṭaṇ, Nairne, 56.
[4] Nairne, 47; Ind. Ant. II, 280. Bāṇkoṭ was also destroyed by the Portuguese Bom. Gaz. X, 321.
[5] Danvers, The Portuguese in India, I, 479, Briggs, Ferishta, III, 518, 519; A. J. L. Sequeira, 401.
[6] A. J. L. Sequeira, 403.
[7] A. J. L. Sequeira, The relations of the Portuguese and the Sultāns of Bijāpur (Bom. Uni.) 39,61,436.
[7] Ibid, 507.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
THE PORTUGUESE.

The same year Barreto "received orders to proceed to Dābhoḷ, and join his forces with those of Antonis Pareira Brandao, admiral of that coast, with the view of destroying that place, in revenge for the actions of the Ādilkhān. Having attacked the city, which was vigorously defended for some time, it was captured and reduced to a heap of ruins[1]".

In 1564 a Portuguese vessel lay off the mouth of the river of Khārepāṭaṇ and between 5th February and the end of March took more than twenty trading vessels belonging to the Gujarāt ports and bound for Khārepāṭaṇ, burning them and putting the crews to death[2].

In 1570 the kings of Bijāpur and Ahmadnagar entered into an alliance against the Portuguese and while the Bijāpur troops in great force invaded the district around Goa, those of Ahmadnagar besieged Chaul area, which was defended by Don Francisco de Mascarenhas, afterwards the first viceroy under Philip II of Spain. This was one of the severest trials the Portuguese ever had to undergo and the result covered them with glory. They estimated the troops of Ahmadnagar which invaded their territories at 42,000 cavalry and 1,20,000 infantry. King Murtazā Nizām Shāh marched against the fort of Revdaṇḍā belonging to the Portuguese, but was obliged to raise the siege after a blockade of some months, as the enemy obtained provisions by sea, owing to the help of the Nizām Shāhi officers who were bribed by the presents, particularly of wine[3]. The Portuguese fleet under Dom Fernando de Vasconc ellos also destroyed Dābhoḷ[4].

A Portuguese force in 1571 landed at Dābhoḷ with the intention of burning it as usual, though one would suppose that, as only one year had elapsed since the last occasion, there would not be much worth burning. But, the Governor, Khwāja Ali Shirāzi, having heard of their intentions laid an ambush and put to death 150 of them. However, the Portuguese burnt Khārepāṭaṇ. It is evident that by 1560 the

[1] *Ibid*, 508; Nairne, 47; Ind. Ant. II, 280.

[1] A. J. L. Sequeira, O. C., 437.

[1] Nairne states that the Bijāpur forces were defeated at Achrā and on the Karli river, both near Mālvaṇ.

[2] Frequent mention of Khārepāṭaṇ is made by the Portuguese historians. This shows that the place must have been, at that time, of considerable trade. Ind Ant., III, (April 1874), 102.

[3] A. J. L. Sequeira, Ibid, 39, 445.

[3] Briggs, Ferishta, III, 522.

[3] While this was going on the Portuguese were able to make an attack from Bassein on Kalyāṇ, which then belonged to Ahmadnagar. The suburbs were burnt and a considerable booty taken—Nairne, 49.

[4] Ind. Ant. II, 280; Nairne, Ibid.

[4] Gujarat historians speak of Dabhoḷ, Daṇḍ Rājpuri as European ports in 1570 A. D. Bird, Mirat-i-Ahmadi (History of Gujarat), 129.

[4] A. J. L. Sequeira, Ibid, 62, 63, 456, 464—480.

Portuguese were entirely masters of this coast and once established they never drew back easily[1].

Fresh treaties were drawn in 1575 and 1576[2] but Dom Diogo de Menezes, assuming office at Goa in 1576 titled out several squadrons which he despatched in different directions. Four captains who were on the northern coast put into the port of Dābhoḷ. The Sultān of Bijāpur being at peace with the Portuguese they were well received by the Ṭhāṇedār Malik Tocam. He offered to supply them with anything they required and invited the captains, Dom Jeronymo Mascarenhas, Dom Diogo, Dom Antonio da Sylveira and Francisco Pessoa and their officers to dine with him. With the exception of Mascarenhas who remained in the vessel in the harbour and suspected some treachery, the rest accepted the invitation. The dinner being over the guests were enjoying themselves when they were suddenly attacked by some hired assassins and brutally murdered. Only a few succeeded in reaching the shore and escaped to the vessels. The murderers then attacked Mascarenhas' ship but were repulsed. Dom Jeronymo immediately afterwards left for Goa to convey the news of the disaster.

As soon as the Governor was informed, he despatched Dom Pedro de Menezes with a small fleet to avenge this wrong. He ordered him to lay in wait for the Mecca ship and destroy whatever he could on the coast. Menezes fell in with two large ships and he destroyed them. Dom Louise de Athaide, at that time, arrived at Goa and took up the Government. He at once took in hand the affairs of Dābhoḷ. He sent supplies and reinforcements to Dom Pedro de Menezes to enable him to act more vigorously against Malik Tocam. He himself conducted the war against the Sultān of Bijāpur along the river Goa. The latter enterprise was so successful that the Sultān sued for peace. He promised as a condition to banish the traitor Malik Tocam not only from Dābhoḷ, but from all his dominions for ever. The peace being concluded, the Portuguese forces retired to their territories.

The treaty had been concluded with the Sultān but the Malik Tocam was still at Dābhoḷ. He publicly exercised his office as Thāṇedār and built a great ship for the Mecca trade. All these facts came to the knowledge of the Viceroy who despatched Dom Paulo de Lima Pareira to Dābhoḷ with a fleet of ten sail to enforce the treaty. The Portuguese on arriving there, found the whole shore

[1] The Portuguese historians are discreetly silent about this event but Ferishta mentions it—Ind. Ant., II, 280; Nairne, 47. The Portuguese plundered several ships belonging to Akbar, returning from Judda in the Red sea. They also landed and burned the towns of Adilābād and Carapatam and went to Dābhoḷ for the same purpose—Briggs, Ferishta, IV, 540, Akbar however did not put a stop to the Portuguese inroads on account of the celebrated beauty, Lady Donna Juliana Diez, in the Imperial Seraglio—Jervis, 84.

[2] A. J. L. Sequeira, The relations of the Portuguese with the Sultāns of Bijāpur (Bom. Unl.) 1932, 63.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
THE PORTUGUESE.

fortified with a large number of cannon, 6000 horse and an equally strong force of infantry. Dom Paulo was not able to disperse this great force with his small fleet. Nevertheless he proceeded up the river and destroyed a number of towns. Just at this juncture the Malik was reinforced by two Malabarese pirates Cartale and Mandairray who were in the neighbourhood with five galliots and whose aid was solicited. Malik joined them with five more sail manned by 5000 resolute Turks and Persians. A fierce fight ensued. The Portuguese boarded the vessels and engaged in a hand to hand encounter. Only one of Malik's ship escaped and all the rest being either captured or destroyed. Dom Paulo then returned to Goa with nine more vessels than he had when he left the place[1].

According to the treaty of 1577 Malik Tocam was banished from the kingdom of Bijāpur, but he was still carrying on his office at Dābhoḷ. The Sultān did not care to interfere in the matter and the Portuguese sent an expedition against the Malik. Malik Tocam was defeated and killed in 1579. This incident did not in the least create enmity between the Portuguese and the Sultān of Bijāpur[2].

The treaty was concluded between the Portuguese and the Sultān of Bijāpur "on the twenty-ninth of January of 1582, in the mansion of the Toao de Faria, secretary of the State, by order of the most illustrious Senhor Dom Francisco Mascarenhas, count of Villa d'orta, viceroy of India; being present Abdul Malique (Abdul Malik) and Coje Fartadim (Khwājā Fath-ud-din), ambassador of Idalaxa (Bijāpur) and Manoel Moraes, whom the said H.E. the Count sends at present to Dabul (Dābhoḷ), and Balthazar Pacheco, interpreter for the State, and Goje Abrao (Khwājā Abrāhām), Jew, and the witnesses undersigned; the said ambassadors said that they were ready in the name of Idalaxa, their Lord, by the powers granted to them, to fulfil and satisfy the treaty of peace as contained in it, which the count Dom Louis de Ataide, the viceroy of India, had settled with Mustafacao (Mustafā Khān) and Zaerbeque (Zahir Bāker), through Manuel de Souza the captain. And the said contract was ready by me, secretary, and declared the terms contained therein to be fulfilled, namely to demolish the fortifications of Dābhoḷ, to give charge of all the artillery that may be found in it and in all their dominions, and likewise some ships which still remain to be delivered and to pay all the debts to the Portuguese and the duties for the horses that shall be considered to be due to the treasury of H.M.; and to cause the ships of the merchants to come from their ports to this city. And after being read and declared to them in the said language, they said that as regards the demolition of the fortification of Dābhoḷ, they were obliged to destroy it in the short time possible, utilising in this all their efforts by bringing the menials from the said

---

[1] A. J. L. Sequeira, The relations of the Portuguese and the Sultāns of Bijāpur (Bom. Uni.) 1932, 526-529.

[2] Danvers, O. C. II, 24-25.

[3] A. J. L. Sequeira, O. C. 531.

Dābhol, all that they could find therein and get together for the said purpose; and likewise to give up all the artillery, big and small that may be found in the said port of Dābhol and their kingdom, that should belong to H. M. our lord, and to the Portuguese subjects of H.M.; and possessing some of their beak-heads (of ships) which will be converted into cargo ships and acquiring some ships of the merchants, they will make them come to this city, without committing any outrage to them; and in order that all this may be fulfilled, Havildar of H.M. will be sent, with their letters in company of Manoel de Moraes, who had been chosen by the said H. M. the count to this effect, and to remain present during the demolition of the said fortification and while giving charge of the artillery and ships and the other things declared above; and as for the debts that they owed to the Portuguese and the duties of horses to the treasury of H.M. which they were ready and prepared to contribute with all that has been accounted for and to this effect and other conditions declared above, that they will promise to fulfil and oblige their own persons and belongings (fazenda) and wives and sons, that they had in this city; and that they will not leave it without all effectively being fulfilled, and satisfying them with everything; the said H.E. the count promised to fulfil the said contract of peace in the name of H.M. which was concluded and settled by the count of Atouguia, of which this is a settlement, in which H.E. signed with the ambassadors and persons mentioned above. Other witnesses that were present, Barthalomeau Velho, Manoel Coelho, clerks (who were) in presence of me, secretary; and I Joao de Faria ordered it to be written and subscribed --the count Don Francisco Mascarenhas Joan de Faria--Baltezar Pacheco--Barthalomeau Velho--Manoel Coelho--Coje Fartadym--Abdul Malique--Coje Abrao[1].

There was fighting in the other parts of the district as well, since the Portuguese had backed a pretender to the throne of Bijāpur in 1555 A.D. and had taken part in the civil war.

The Governor " went to Ponda to assist at the installation of Meale Khān as king and he appointed officers for the collection of the revenues about Ponda .... Xacolim Aga, who was collecting the

[1] A. J. L. Sequeira, O. C. 533-536-Cf. Pazes-e-Tratados, No. 1. Anno de 1571, Fol. 12. Nothing is found of this treaty in Faria de Souza. The whole document refers to Dābhol and to its dismantling by the Bijāpur authorities. The Portuguese original was also published in the Archivo Portuguese Oriental, V, pp. 985-987, copied from the Livro Grande des Pazes, Fol. 12; with which this copy has been compared and checked by A. J. L. Sequeira. One full line of abovementioned copy has been omitted in the one published in the Archive, p. 986.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
THE PORTUGUESE.

same on behalf of the Ādilkhān opposed Noronha with a force of 7,000 men. The Governor having sent a supply of ammunition to Noronha, he marched to Cuzale, of which he easily took possession. .... Not far from Acharā, the Portuguese were attacked by a force of 1,000 men. After a sharp fight the enemy were completely routed with a heavy loss. Further up the river the Portuguese encountered another force of the enemy, commanded by Xacolim himself. Here, again, the enemy were routed with a loss of 1,000 killed, the Portuguese losses being only twenty-four[1].

"In 1584 the viceroy despatched Dom Giles Yanez Mascarenhas to Cochin with orders on his way to destroy the fort built by the Naik of Saṅgameshvar on the river of that name. The object of the fort was to give protection to the pirates who infested these parts and did great damage to the Portuguese shipping. Dom Giles started with a fleet of fourteen sail and had a force of three hundred men from Goa. He thus sailed up the river. But on his way he got from his galleon into a small vessel and ran so far into the rocks that he could not get out again. The enemy who covered the shore immediately attacked him and he was killed. The rest of the force was not able to send him any help and the expedition retired.

"Duarte de Menzes was now appointed to succeed Dom Francisco Mascarenhas as viceroy. He arrived at Goa in 1584 and took charge of the Government. Soon after his arrival he took in hand the affair of the Naik of Saṅgameshvar[2]. Thus in 1584, the Naik of Saṅgameshvar was attacked by the Portuguese and the Sultān of Bijāpur.

"The viceroy received an ambassador from the Ādilkhān, with whom he entered into negotiations with the view of sending a joint expedition against the Naik of Saṅgameshvar, to punish him for causing the death of Dom Giles Yānez, and to put down the piracy that existed on that coast. It was agreed that, Rosti Khān, Governor of Poṇḍā, should assist with 40,000 men by land whilst Dom Hierome de Mascarenhas should attack the Naik by sea. These arrangements were accordingly carried out; Dom Hierome, entering the river with his ships, sent up a party of men in thirteen rowing boats, who at break of day came upon some works thrown up for defence. A force was landed which attacked the enemy and having killed many of them the rest fled, and the Portuguese then captured their defences, and took all the cannon out of them. They then marched upon the town, whereupon the inhabitants fled without making any attempt at defence. In their flight they fell into the hands of Rosti Khān, who was advancing upon the town from the opposite direction. The two forces then laid waste the whole country, whereupon the Naik, who had fled to the woods for safety, sent an ambassador to implore

[1] Danvers, O. C. I, 505.
[2] A. J. L. Sequeira, O. C., 537.

mercy, promising to submit to any conditions provided he was restored to his powers and his territories spared. Arrangements to this effect were accordingly concluded and the invading armies then retired[1]."

The small chief-ship of Saṅgameshvar[2] referred to above had continued in the district from the fourteenth century. The Rājā of Saṅgameshvar, Jākkurāi had brought disaster to the Bahāmani armies in 1453 A.D. He had submitted to the Bahāmani general Mahmud Gāvān only in 1471 A.D. On the establishment of the Bijāpur kingdom, he continued to be loyal to the Sultāns of Bijāpur. The Rājā Bāḷojī, described as the Lord of Pervaloy (Prabhāvaḷi) and of the kingdom of Saṅgameshvar assisted the Sultān of Bijāpur in his efforts to recapture Goā in 1510 A.D. The importance of this state was considerably reduced in the 16th century towards the end of which the chiefs are described as the Naiks of Saṅgameshvar. But a new family arose to power in the middle of the 16th century.

In the southern part of the district the area round Sāvantvāḍi was under the chief of Kuḍāḷ. In the middle of the 16th century (1554), one Māṅg Sāvant, revolting from Bijāpur tried to establish himself as an independent chief. Making Hodāvāḍā his chief, city a small village six miles from Vāḍī, defeated the Bijāpur troops sent against him and till his death maintained his independence. So great a name did he gain for courage and skill, that on his death he was deified and his shrine (maṭh) is still to be seen at Hodāvaḍā. Māṅg's successors, unable to maintain their independence again became feudatories of the Bijāpur kings.

The Sāvants again made themselves independent on the decline of Bijāpur.

In spite of the wars arising out of the Bijāpur Portuguese conflicts in the district had on the whole a stable administration in the 16th and the first half of the seventeenth century. Yusuf Ādil Shah the founder of the Bijāpur dynasty took steps to improve the district and

[1] Danvers, *Ibid*, II, 57.

[1] Briggs, Ferishta III, 524.

[1] A. J. L. Sequeira, *Ibid*, 64, 539.

[2] Saṅgameshvar is mentioned by the earliest Portuguese historians but not as a place of much mark and chiefly in connection with the pirates frequenting the river. South of Bombay, De Baros only mentions in his discription ing the river. South of Bombay, De Baros only mentions in his description Carapaton. Of these Chaul and Dabhol are called cities and ranked with Surat and Goa. Ind. Ant., III, (April 1874), 102.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE PORTUGUESE.

bring its wastelands under tillage[1]. A new class of officers, the khots, was introduced in the central parts of the district. They were in the nature of farmers of revenue, and on condition of extending cultivation and populating the villages, were given certain considerations which allowed them a close connection with the hereditary revenue officers and a hold on the village affairs.

The taxes were not heavy and with considerable coastal trade and a strong administration the district achieved a fair measure of prosperity under the Sultāns of Bijāpur. The slow decline of the Portuguese during this period (1600-1650) had the result of ensuring peace from coastal strifes between Bijāpur and the Portuguese and ensuring a stable administration[2].

---

1 Though it is not difficult to understand why it was that Dābhoḷ declined in the latter days of the Musalmans, and still more subsequently, so long as the Musalman capital was at Bidar or Gulburgā, Dābhoḷ was the nearest port, and there was no need to look for another. But when independent kingdoms were established at Bijāpur and Goḷkoṇḍā, it would be natural to look for ports further south than Dābhoḷ; and Rājāpūr and especially the splendid harbour and creek of Gheria, would soon obtain the preference. And in Marāthā days, Dābhoḷ was entirely eclipsed by the neighbouring town and fortress of Anjanvel and thus, between near and distant rivals, fell into utter obscurity as also did Chaul. The Hindu inhabitants are said to have grants of some of the best sites in the town of Dābhoḷ described as waste lands. Thornton's Gazetteer of India does not even contain the name of Dābhoḷ. On the other hand, in a map of India published with Orme's Historical Fragments in 1782, Dābhoḷ is marked conspicuously, while several lines are given to it in a small Gazetteer of the Eastern Hemisphere, published at Boston, U. S. in 1808—Ind. Ant. II, (Oct. 1873), 281. Again, it is easy to see that it was no part of the Portuguese plan to invade the inland parts of the country; in fact, the mere occupation of the ports would have caused too great a drain on the population of Portuguese if Albuquerque had not provided his soldiers with wives from the women of Goa.—Nairne, 47; Rev. Sabino D'Souza, "The Struggle between the Portuguese and the Marathas on the Goa border (1953)" (Bom. Uni.), 33.

2 The Shenvis fled from Goa to escape conversion by the Portuguese and settled in Mālvaṇ and Veṅgurlē, Bom. Gaz. X, 116.

Thus many of these grants confirmed in the Vatans, the Hindu proprietors desāis, deshpāṇdes and kulkarṇis; (Nairne, 34). The first introduction of the Khots as Jervis learnt from inscriptions and many knowls or grants for the occupation of new land, was in the year 1502 when Mustafā Khān was deputed by Ali Adil Shah, first king of Bijāpur to administer the affairs of the subhedari of Dābhoḷ, extending from the Sāvitri river to the Gurnyee river. In many of the knowls, the Desaees, Koolkurnees and Deshpāṇdes, about that period, are confirmed in their vatans, from which it is to be supposed that these officers had been some time in existence, although they were merely looked upon as agents or poligars, who had usurped certain privileges which, for the better realization of the revenue, and in view of the conciliation of this troublesome but useful class of revenue agents, the Bijāpur government thought it necessary to enter into such recognizances—Jervis, (1835), 75.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE PORTUGUESE.

With the rise of Shivāji (1630-1680) the hold of the Sultāns on the district was lost by 1675 and the district passed finally into the hands of the Marāṭhās.

Meanwhile, the Portuguese authorities were aware of the imperialistic designs of Akbar and the king of Portugal, Philip II of Spain himself was the first in urging the viceroy Dom Francisco de Gama, to be ready for the Moghal attack[1]. The best preparation against the Moghal army seemed a defensive alliance with the Malik, the Chief of Dābhoḷ and the neighbouring kingdoms. Akbar could never reach the Portuguese settlement but by passing through these kingdoms, since he would not venture to fight the Portuguese on the sea[2].

During the time of the rebellion of Prince Salīm against his father the alliance was forgotten, being then unnecessary as the interior disturbances of Akbar's kingdom became a cause of rejoicing for his enemies[3].

At last the Portuguese saw all those kingdoms overcome by the Moghal Emperors, being themselves safe in the midst of that storm, on account of the new Marāṭhā kingdom that arose from their ruins.

THE DUTCH (1595).

With the seventeenth century, the European rivals of the Dutch, the Portuguese (1595)[4] began to trouble them as well as the Malabar and Arab pirates. In 1615 the chief points in the treaty made between the Emperor Jehangir and the Portuguese expressed their mutual enmity to the English and Dutch. The entry of other Europeans into Indian seas was looked on as so much of a calamity that Dela Valle calls it one of the signs of the decay of the Portuguese that English and Dutch ships frequent the ports of Dābhol, (Chaul and Bassein) without hindrance and without acknowledging the Portuguese supremacy, though the latter still prevented native vessels from

[1] Moncoes do Reino, No. 4, Ano de 1595 to 1598. Fol. 629. Letter dated 25th February 1596 (Archivo da Secretaria Geral do Governo). Rev. H. Heras. "The Portuguese alliance with the Muhammedan kingdoms of the Deccan", BBRAS. Vol. I, (New series), 1925, 122.

[2] Letter dated 5th February 1597, *Ibid*, Fol. 783. In reply from the viceroy to the king, there is an account of the steps taken by the king of Bijāpur to foster this alliance. *Ibid*. Fol. 785.

[3] Although these documents inform us only of the negotiations between the Portuguese and the king of Bijāpur and the Malik, nevertheless there is no doubt that all the other kingdoms of the Deccan joined this alliance and it seems probable that this invitation was made through the above mentioned chief of Dābhoḷ.

[3] Letter of Philip III of Spain to the same viceroy, dated Lisbon, 21st November 1598. *Ibid*, No. 2 Ano de 1583 to 1601 Folio 421; Letter dated Libson 25th January 1601, No 8 Ano de 1601 to 1602, Fol. 16; Letter, dated 23rd March 1604, Valladolid in Spain to Viceroy Ayres de Saldhana No. 9, Ano de 1604 Fol. 22.

[4] A. J. L. Sequira *Ibid* 89.

sailing in these seas without their permission. So late as 1624 no one could go to Europe by way of Persia and Turkey without obtaining leave from the authorities of Goa.

The Dutch found it easier to conquer the Portuguese than to make new settlements for themselves and they were everywhere assisted by the hatred which the natives had now for the Portuguese. The Dutch blockaded Goa in 1603 and[1] from 1639 to 1642 in the last mentioned year took some ships trying to enter the port. A cessation of arms for ten years had been concluded in Europe between the Portuguese and Dutch in 1641, and this extended to Asia in the following year, but in 1649, the war was again going on. The Dutch had built a fortified factory at Veṅgurlē previous to 1641. But it does not appear that they ever cared much about establishing themselves in the Koṅkaṇ, as at that time they refused an invitation from the king of Bijāpur to winter their ships in Dābhoḷ, Ortzery (Achra ?) or other of his harbours[2]. They were however for many years the strongest of the European powers in the East[3].

In 1638, under the name Fingurla, Vengurlē is mentioned as a very convenient haven, where the Dutch had a trade settlement and victualled their ships during their eight month blockade of Goa[4].

---

[1] *Ibid*, 40.

[2] Nairne, 63.

[3] Hatalkar, Relations between the French and the Marathas, 4.

[4] In 1614, the Portuguese viceroy, Don Zeronymo de Azvedo despatched Antonio Monteiro Corte Real as ambassador to the Sultān of Bijāpur, insisting on the Dutch being expelled from Bijāpur territory, as the Dutch were attempting to gain the Sultān's favour and were attempting the establishment of a factory at Bijāpur, also.–A. J. L. Sequeira, O. C. 541. But the Dutch succeeded in getting a footing on 15th November 1636, the Dutch again appeared before Goa and asked the Sultān to co-operate in expelling the Portuguese out of India. In 1639, the Portuguese viceroy again appealed to the Sultān against the Dutch. This met with no success and the Dutch not only remained in the peaceful possession of their factory at Veṅgurlē, but they were at the same time negotiating for a factory at Karwar, where the English were also endeavouring to obtain a footing. The Portuguese trade by this time was completely destroyed–A. J. L. Sequeira, O. C. 546-547.

[5] Baldaeus (1660) says the Hollaudus have a stately factory at Veṅgurlē, a place very considerable, not only for its plenty of wheat, rice and all sorts of provisions but also for its situation near Goa–Bom. Gaz. X, 377 Cf. Churchill III, 602 (Collected Voyages).

In 1660, the Dutch fleet was again blockading the harbour of Goā, but could not get close enough to take it[1].

In 1660, under the name Mingrela, it is mentioned as a large town stretching half a league along the coast, with one of the best roads in India, where all the vessels that came from Batavia, Japan, Bengal and Ceylon, and those bound for Surat, Ormuz, Balfora and the red sea, both coming and going, anchored, because both the water and rice were excellent. It was famous also for its best of spices cardamoms, which not being had in other countries, were very scarce and dear; also for its great store of coarse calicuts spent in the country, and great quantities of coarse matting that served for packing goods[2].

In 1661 when Bombay was ceded to England the object was said to be that king Charles might be "better able to assist and protect the subjects of the king of Portugal in those parts from the power and invasion of the States of the united provinces". But it does not appear that anything was ever done to carry this into effect, probably because when the English troops came to take possession, a dispute arose as to whether Salsette was or was not included in the cession[3].

EARLY ENGLISH AND FRENCH SETTLEMENTS.

As early as 1611 the English East India Company had directed their attention to Dābhoḷ with a view to the establishment of a factory, but they were opposed by the Portuguese. Sir Henry Middleton with three ships went there in February 1612, and stayed some little time, receiving great civility from the Sidi Governor and procuring

---

[1] At that time the following description is given of an event at Veṅgurlē in which the Dutch took part. "The Bantam Yachts were waiting to transport the queen of Golconda from Veṅgurlē to Mokha on her way to the tomb of Muhammad. Her guards who had conducted her eighty leagues were 4,000 cavalry with long coats of mail, the shoulders whereof were embroidered with serpents' heads like the ancient Romans, they had bright polished helmets, were armed with bows and arrows, wore long beards, and were mounted on very fine Persian horses. On each side of every man of quality who attended her was a footman holding the briddle: the queen and all her ladies were carried in close litters concealed from public view, and they were preceded by several camels covered with rich furniture, on one whereof was mounted a kettle drummer, who performed with great dexterity. The commodore and the Director of the Dutch East India Company met her two leagues from the town, in which while she stayed, she dictated to her secretaries in several different languages. There was a magnificent tent erected for her on the sea shore, the passage from whence to the shallop which was to carry her on board the Yacht was covered with Calico". Veṅgurlē is described as a large village on the sea-shore where most ships for Persia were obliged to touch for wood and water. Nairne, 63, Footnote; Rājāpur also is one of the oldest towns in the district and was formerly a place of great trade, which is proved by the English, French and Dutch all having had factories in very early days—Ind. Ant. II, 319.

[2] Bom. Gaz. X, 377 c/f Tavernier, in Harris, II, 360.

[3] Nairne, 63.

some trade. But the company's settlement at Surat was for some years sufficient for their requirements. In 1618, further attempts were made to trade at Dābhoḷ, and in 1624 and for two or three years afterwards difficulties both with the Dutch and the Moghals caused a proposal that the factory and establishment should be removed there from Surat, as the inhabitants had made most friendly offers of accommodation and protection[1]. This was not carried out, but ten years later a *firman* for a factory at Dābhoḷ was asked for and refused and no further attempt seems to have been made[2]. In 1638-39, the First Free Traders or Interlopers, the association of Sir William Courten, established a factory at Rājāpur, in Ratnāgiri district and when, owing to the great power of the Dutch, in the following year the English East India Company desired a place which would be secure from them and capable of fortification, Rājāpur was recommended as the best after Bombay. In 1649-50, the Musalman Governor offered the trade of this town to the President at Surat because of the bad character of the interlopers, who had incurred heavy debts there. But just about this time Courten's association was incorporated with the East India Company, so that the factory at Rājāpur continued on the same footing as before[3].

In 1660 and 1670, Shivājī plundered the town of Rājāpur, sacking the English factory. In the terms of a treaty with Shivāji, the factory was again established but it was never profitable. Though several other factories were abandoned by the English, they had retained the one, at Rājāpur. Though Shivājī had punished the factors for furnishing the Bijāpur king with war stores, and the factors were imprisoned, until a ransom was paid, Shivājī and Sambhājī after him always professed to be very anxious to have a factory at Rājāpur. But it did not succeed and in 1676-77, its withdrawal was resolved on owing

---

[1] In consequence of Middleton's honourable treatment of the Mokha Junk, the Governor of Dabhoḷ, offered the English free trade and as their position in Surat was most uncomfortable, they thought of removing to Dābhoḷ (1616). In 1618, the English made further attempts to trade. In 1624, there was again a proposal to move to Dābhoḷ from Surat. Milburn, Oriental Commerce, XI, 152 and XII, p. 155.

[2] In 1624, the English were received by the Dābhoḷ people with much honour. Then a scuffle arose and the English took to their guns and set fire to the town. The people fled but encouraged by a Portuguese factor and some others, came back and drove the English to their ships— Bom. Gaz. X, 330 c/f. De La Valle's letters, III, 130. Three years later (1626) Herbert describes the town as with low houses terraced at the top, and with nothing to boast of but an old castle and a few temples—Ind. Ant. III, 102.

[3] Jaitāpur is the outlet for the sea traffic from Rājāpur, and the place of call for coasting vessels. Mandelso (1638) mentions it under the name Shitāpur as one of the best harbours, the island sheltering it from all winds. Ogilby (1670) calls Cetapur, one of the chief Konkan ports; and at the beginning of the 18th century, Hamilton, (1700-1720) speaks of Rājāpur harbour as one of the best in the world (It was burnt by the Sidi and Moghal fleet in December 1676)—Hamilton, New Accounts, I, 241.

[3] Nairne, 120.

to the continual extortions of the Marāṭhās. Shivājī, however, would not let the factors go and the establishment was not withdrawn till 1681. It was for the fourth time opened in 1702 but after about ten years was finally withdrawn[1].

The French factory was probably started about 1667[2]. It was also sacked by Shivājī in 1670 and whether it was again opened is not known. It was closed before 1710.

In June 1696, there was an indecisive engagement off the Veṅgurlē rocks between the Dutch and five French ships. The Dutch retired to Goa and the French to Surat[3].

After the decline of the Portuguese, the Dutch still held their fortified factory at Veṅgurlē, but do not appear ever to come into collision with the English, in the district. There was, however, great jealousy between the two nations, and in the treaty concluded with the Marāṭhās in October 1756, the first article provided that the Dutch should be excluded from the Marāṭhā dominions, and another article forbade their admission to Daṇḍa—Rājāpur[4].

The Marāṭhā-French relations date from the very year of the establishment of the French settlements in India. The Kārwār factors in the English factory, writing on the 16th December 1668, report to the headquarters at Surat, "they (the French) have settled at Rājāpur and have met Sevagy, who have them some clothes and a *firman* to trade freely in all his ports[5]". In fact, Francois Martin seems to refer to this very point when he records in his diary that on arriving at Calicut (17-January, 1669), on his way to Surat, he met Massieurs Faes and J. Boureau, who informed him that "they had been to Rājāpur and had seen there Rājā Shivājī who received them well and gave them permission to trade and establish themselves in his lands[6]".

[1] It was here that able but unfortunate Sir John Child, afterwards (1682-1690) President of the East India Company, spent several of his first years in India. The factor at Rājāpur was his uncle and according to Captain A. Hamilton who never lets a chance of abusing him pass, Child drew the notice of the company to some irregularities on his uncle's part and in reward at the early age of twenty-four, got himself appointed his uncle's successor. Hamilton, New Account, I, 241-242

[2] Nairne states that the French factory at Rājāpur was established in 1670. Koṅkaṇ 121. The first French factory was established at Surat by merchants who started for Surat on 15th October, 1667—Milburn's Oriental Commerce, I, 381: Hatalkar states the year as 1668—(Hatalkar, o.c. 5) and the year for French factory at Rājāpur as 1668—Hatalkar o.c. 6

[3] In 1670 the Rājāpur factory is mentioned as then a French factory, Bruce, Annals, II, 285.

[3] Nairne, 122.

[4] Nairne, 122 c/f. Aitchison, Treaties, III, 17.

[5] Hatalkar, o.c. 7.

[6] *Ibid.*

CHAPTER 2.
History.
EARLY ENGLISH AND FRENCH SETTLEMENTS.

The Siddi of Janjira had become a source of constant trouble to Shivājī. He had on numerous occasions plundered and burnt villages and towns under the Marāṭhā rule and had subjected the inhabitants to inhuman treatment. He could carry on his predatory activities with ease from his castle of Daṇḍā-Rājāpurī on the main land. It was quite natural therefore that Shivājī should set his heart on reducing this stronghold. But for achieving this objective he wanted help from the European nations, particularly in the supply of arms and ammunition. Even as early as February 1663, Randolph Taylor and others had observed, "The Rājā (Shivājī) would gladly afford the (English) Company any place convenient for them in his possession, with several other advantages, if they would assist him in taking the Daṇḍā-Rājāpurī castle". This fact is further corroborated by the dispatch from Bombay to Surat, dated 13th November 1673, "If the French have sent down so many guns and so much lead to Rajapore, Sevajee will be able to arm out a notable fleet against the Siddy". The Dutch offered to assist Shivājī with their whole fleet but they made it a condition that he should help them to oust the English from the island of Bombay. Shivājī could not accept the proposal[1].

The French were the only European nation who found it convenient to help Shivājī with arms and ammunition. A dispatch from Bombay to Surat of 5th September 1670, hints at the possibility of Shivājī buying lead or guns from the French factory at Rājāpur. Another dispatch, dated 6th November 1673, reports, "The French have sent a pink down to Rajapore with 2,000 maunds of lead and 88 iron guns from lb. 3 to lbs 17 weight[2]."

M. Baron, a director of the French East India Company had all along maintained good relations with Shivaji[3]. In 1672, he entered into secret negotiations with him. The negotiations, however, did not materialise. In 1675, while on his way to Surat from Pondicherry, Baron stayed for some weeks at Rājāpur. There he had several meetings with the Marāṭhā minister, Aṇṇājī Datto, from whom he learnt about Shivājī's ambitions in the Karnāṭak. During his stay at Rājāpur, M. Baron also made an attempt to form an alliance between Shivājī and Bahlol Khān, the Commander-in-chief of the Bijāpur forces and later on Regent of Bijāpur. Baron wrote to Martin at Pondicherry to find out from Sher Khān Lodī, the Bijāpur Governor of Walikaṇḍāpuram, his views on this subject. The latter, from his past experience of relations existing between Shivājī and the Bijāpur Government thought that any idea of forming an alliance between them was in the nature of an impossibility. All the same he suggested that

---

[1] *Ibid*, 8.

[2] *Ibid*.

[3] "The Maratha chief", he wrote to Colbert, "shows great esteem for the (French) Company". M. Blot, another director of the French Company, mentions the same fact: "If he (Shivaji) returns to sack Surat, he will have great respect for the French flag"—Hatalkar, o.c. 9.

if Shivājī would undertake on an oath called "Shāligrām" to observe strictly the terms of the treaty that would be concluded with Bahlol Khān, he (Sherkhān) would gladly play the role of the mediator. Francois Martin reported to Baron his conversation with Sherkhān. Probably, the French director realised the futility of the undertaking and abandoned the project.

As things stood, even the English had grown jealous of the friendly attitude of the Marāṭhās towards the French[1]. They explained on one occasion (27th June, 1673), that the Marāṭhās had released a French "Hay' which they had captured, while they refused to show the same favour to the English. Again, on the occasion of Shivājī's visit to Vengurlē on March 21, 1675, the Rājāpur Factors wished to have an interview with the Marāṭhā king for the redress of their grievances. But they met with considerable difficulties before they could gain their objective. The French on the other hand, easily obtained an audience with Shivājī. In spite of their treaty with Shivājī (June 12, 1674), the Engilsh had failed to carry out the terms of the agreement, in that they were still hesitating to supply him with arms and ammunition and had allowed the Sidi to carry on in the port of Bombay[2].

SHIVAJI.

In the middle of the 17th century. the western sea-board was in the possession of the Moghals in the north. After the Nizām Shāhī kingdom of Ahmadnagar was finally annexed by the Moghals in 1636, the sea-board which formerly belonged to that kingdom passed into the possession of the Bijāpur kingdom. But in this territory were also situated the Portuguese possessions along the fringe of the sea-board and Janjira, the Abyssinian Admiral's impregnable naval station. In this very territory began the career of Shivājī, the founder of the Marāṭhā national State[3].

[1] Abba 'Carre', a Frenchman, had a very happy experience about Shivaji's officers. In 1668, Abba 'Carre' passed through Shivāji's ports. He remarks "We were treated (by Shivājī's men) in a manner which was beyond our expectation". In 1673, 'Carre' on his way to Rājāpur, had occasion to halt at Chaul for some time. The Marāṭhā commandant of the fort, when informed that 'Carre' was a French man, treated him with great hospitality. At the time of Carre's departure from Chaul, he gave him letters to his officers recommending them to give him safe conduct through the Marāṭhā territory. Once again, while on his way from Surat to St. Thome, 'Carre' passed through Shivājī's dominions and everywhere received nothing but courtesy from Shivājī's officers and troops—Hatalkar-Foot note, o.c. p. 10.

[2] Hatalkar, o.c. 11.

[3] He began his naval career by beginning ship-building at Kalyan but its outlet to the sea was completely blocked by the Portuguese possession. We hear the first mention of Shivājī in a letter of the Portuguese Viceroy to his king in the middle of 1659 wherein he writes that one Shivājī, son of Shahājī, has conquered the territory inland to the Portuguese sea-board from Bassein to Chowl and has become powerful—Rev. Sabino D'Souza "The struggle between the Portuguese and the Marāṭhās on the Goa border" (1659-1763), 7.

[8] Jervis, Konkan, 90.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

SHIVAJI.

After his victory over the Bijāpur general, Afzalkhān, on 10th November 1659, Shivājī captured the fort of Panhāḷā and marched into the district[1]. He started taking "possession of all forts and inland towns". The Bijāpur officers abandoned their places and took refuge in Rājāpur. As Rājāpur was in fief of the Bijāpur noble Rustam-i-Zaman who was friendly to Shivājī, the place was for the time spared[2].

The Portuguese viceroy had ordered his captains not to allow Marāṭhā ships to come out of Kalyāṇ, Bhivaṇḍi and Panvel into the sea but notwithstanding these orders, Shivājī's ships found their way to the south. Shivājī, from this base, conquered the whole of the present Ratnāgiri district within four years[3].

The three powers of the Southern Koṅkaṇ—Bijāpur, the Sidi, and the Sāvants, then united against the invader. At the same time a Marāṭhā army appeared within four hours' march of Veṅgurlē but had to retire under the attacks of the Desai of Kuḍāḷ[4].

Early in the following year, 1661, Shivājī again marched in the district and captured the coast from Daṇḍā-Rājāpurī to Khārepāṭaṇ. Dābhoḷ surrendered in February 1661 and was placed under a Governor of Shivājī[5]. The small state of Palvaṇ was annexed.

---

[1] The Koṅkaṇ by 1636 was divided into four Subhedaris or districts. The first extending from the Vaitarṇā river to the Nagoṭhanā river was under the subhedar of Kalyan, the second under the Habshee of Janjira, in farm, with reservation of his own immediate Jagir, the half of Rājāpur taluka. This extended to the Savitri river. The third was the subhedari of Dābhoḷ, extending to the Dewgurh or Gurnyee river, the fourth was confined to the Vadi Sāvants—Jervis, 90, 63.

[2] G. S. Sardesai, o.c. I, 128; J. Sarkar, Shivaji and his Times, 74, 219; Balkrishna, 58-60.

Salabat Jung (Sidi Jauhar) had approached the English factors of Rājāpur for ammunition and some English gunners who could create havoc among the defenders of Panhāḷā. Revington, the chief of the factory with his assistants Mingham and Gifford came with an efficient heavy gun and ammunition to help Salābat Jung. This wanton interference of the English merchants of Rājāpur gave offence to Shivājī's as their European gunnery proved highly effective and made Shivājī's position altogether untenable—G. S. Sardesai, o.c. I, 132; J. Sarkar, o.c. 219-220; Balkrishna, 68.

[3] Rev. Sabino D'Souza, o.c. 8, G. S. Sardesai, o.c. I, 122; J. Sarkar, o.c. 85; Balkrishna, Shivaji the Great, 47.

[4] J. Sarkar, o.c. 221.

[5] Nairne, 68.

[6] The Sidis purchased Shivājī's friendship by handing over to him their posts of Tala, Ghosala and Rairi, of which Shivājī personally took possession during his southern tour in 1658. Thereupon Shivājī visited the shrine of Hareshvar and proceeded to Rājāpur with a view to helping the Savant of Kuḍāḷ whom Rustam-i-Zaman had attacked during the summer of 1658. The Savant was also a scion of the Bhonslē family and in his extremity has appealed to Shivājī for help. Shivājī then personally toured the whole region of South Konkan and established his post at Rājāpur. G. S. Sardesai, New History of the Marathas, I, 121.

Saṅgameshvar, next fell into his hands. Shivājī advanced further into the district to Rājāpur and Khārepāṭaṇ passed into his possession[1].

The Rājāh of Shriṅgārpur was next defeated and his state was annexed in April 1661. For the protection of the Pālvaṇ region, Shivājī fortified Chirdurg naming it Mandangaḍ. The fort of Pālgaḍ was also constructed by him at this time, while after the conquest of Shriṅgārpur, the neighbouring fort Prachitgaḍ was repaired and maintained in strength[2].

While the Sultān of Bijāpur was engaged in his campaign against the Rājāh of Bidnūr in 1663, Shivājī marched from Kolhāpūr to Veṅgurlē. He occupied the place and left a garrison of 2,000 soldiers there. The Bijāpur authorities tried to form a junction with the Sāvant of Vāḍī and other Rājāhs in the area to drive Shivājī out

---

[1] J. Sarkar, o.c. 83; Balkrishna, o.c. 60-68, 131-162.

The Sāvants having submitted to him, that part of the Koṅkaṇ, south of Sāḷshi Mahāl i.e. the whole of the present Mālvaṇ sub-division and a part of the Vāḍī districts was left under their exclusive management, and the revenue system there remained unchanged--Nairne, 68.

Shivājī probably in the early months of 1661 conducted a regular raid, plundered Nizāmpur, put down the chief of Pālvaṇ, near Dāpoli, captured Dābhoḷ from its owner surnamed Daḷvi, worshipped at the shrine of Parashurām near Chipḷūṇ, proceeded to Saṅgameshvar, also a rich port then and stationing there two of his trusted officers Tānājī Mālusare and Pilāji Nīlkaṇṭh, himself suddenly appeared before Rājāpur—G. S. Sardesai, o.c. I, 138; J. Sarkar, o.c. 83.

[2] Most of the forts are supposed to be the work of Bijāpur kings (1500-1660), raised in the 16th century and in the 17th century repaired and strengthened by Shivājī. Shivājī more than any of its rulers attached importance to hill forts, every pass was commanded by forts and in the closer defiles, every steep and overhanging rock was held as a station from which to roll great masses of stones, a most effectual annoyance to the labouring march of cavalry, elephants and carriages. It is said that he left 350 of these posts in the Koṅkaṇ alone—Orme, Historical Fragment, 93.

G. S. Sardesai, o.c. I, 138-39, J. Sarkar o.c. 84.

At this time Shivājī caused a survey to be made of the coast and having fixed in Mālvaṇ as the best protection for his vessels and the likeliest place for a stronghold, he built forts there, rebuilt and strengthened Suvarṇadurg (1660), Ratnāgiri, Jaygaḍ, Añjanvel (Gopalgaḍ), Vijaydurg (1653), Sindhudurg or Mālvāṇ (1664)—G. S. Sardesai, o.e. 122; Nairne, o.c. 63, 68; Jervis, o.c. 92. Father Navarette sailed from Goa on the 16th November 1670 and in the passage up the coast lay some days in sight of Dābhoḷ, which he says, is a strong and handsome fort belonging to Subagi (Shivājī)—Orme, Historical Fragments, 206. Shivājī prepared vessels at all these places-Nairne, 68. Sindhudurg at Mālvaṇ was constructed out of the plunder of Surat— G. S. Sardesai, o.c. I, 149; Failing in his efforts to take Janjirā from the Sidi, Shivājī chose Mālvaṇ with its rocky islands and deep-blocked harbour as his coast headquarters Besides the main fortress on the larger of the outer islands, he fortified the smaller island Padmagaḍ and on the main land opposite the town and at the mouth of the creek about a mile and a half north, built the forts of Rājkot and Sarjākoṭ. Shivājī was anxious for grain to store his forts and so be able to move his troops without baggage. Jervis, o.c. 110.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

SHIVAJI.

of Rājāpūr and Khārepāṭaṇ. But their efforts did not succeed. It was at this time that Rājāpūr finally passed into the hands of Shivājī[1].

Earlier, Lakhan Savant, the chief of Kuḍāḷ, had on the first appearance of Shivājī, in south Koṅkaṇ, submitted to him. But in 1664, he appealed to the Sultan of Bijāpūr to assist him in fighting Shivājī. Accordingly the Bijāpūr general Khawās Khān arrived in the district and engaged the Marāṭhās in October 1664. The Bijāpuris were worsted in the beginning but fighting stubbornly, they repulsed the Marāṭhās, not without heavy loss to themselves. Kuḍal was recaptured by Lakhan Sāvant. Shivājī now attacked and destroyed the Bijāpūr detachment under Bājī Ghorpaḍe hurrying to the assistance of Khawās Khān. Bājī Ghorpaḍe, fell in this encounter. The Khān was in no position to withstand his attacks. He fled from the district to Chandargarh in the uplands. Lakhan Sāvant fled from Kuḍāḷ which was now placed under the charge of Krishṇā Sāvant. The Bijāpūr generals made an effort to reconquer South Koṅkaṇ, at a time when the Marāṭhās were fighting the Moghals under Jaisiṅg. They recovered Dābhoḷ from the Marāṭhās only to lose it in the same year 1664, when Shivājī had made peace with the Moghals and marched against Bijāpūr; Muhmmad Ikhlās Khān, the Bijāpūr general held Kuḍāḷ for some time but had to abandon it as he had to hasten to the defence of Bijāpūr. During

[1] During this time (1670), proceedings were going on in the Koṅkaṇ with a view to the capture of Jañjīrā. The historian Khafi Khān was then in that district and has given a long account of what took place, but it need only here be said that Shivājī was himself present in this year and that Fateh Khān the Sidi who was in the Bijāpūr interest, abandoned Daṇḍa-Rājāpūr and took refuge in Jañjīrā and was willing to surrender even that. But three of the other Sidis prevented this and having deposed Fateh Khān put themselves and the State under the protection of the Moghals—Sir H. Elliot. VII, 289; Nairne 69; J. Sarkar, o.c. 250.

[1] *Note.*—When early in 1660 Shivājī's men came upon Dābhoḷ, that port had in it three trading vessels belonging to Afzalkhān. Muhammad Shariff, the Governor of Dābhoḷ conveyed these ships quickly to Rājapūr into the custody of the English factory. The British would not give these ships to Shivājī's agent. When Shivājī arrived at Rājāpūr, the chief of the factory, Remington ran for safety but Doroji seized the goods and detained the second officer Gifford on 20th January 1660. However, Rustam-i-Zaman pleaded for the English. Thereafter the English assisted Salābat Jung. Remington, Mingham, Gifford and their interpreter Velji went to Panhālgaḍ and opened fire in July 1660 and Shivājī appeared at Rājāpūr in the following March and Randolph Taylor, Richard Taylor, Gifford, Ferrand, Richard, Napier and Sāmuel Bernard were immediately put under arrest. Shivājī stationed a competent officer, Raoji Somnāth to manage the affairs of Rājāpūr,—G. S. Sardesai, o.c. I, 140-141; J. Sarkar, o.c. 220, 319—327. The English factory at Rājāpūr was reopened in 1675—J. Sarkar, 332.

[1] Sardesai o.c. I, 151, Orme puts it in 1670 and 1674—Orme, Historical Fragments, 22, 26, 40.

[1] J. Sarkar, o.c. 223.

the course of this war (1666), Rustam-i-Zaman, the Bijāpūr general succeeded in retaking Kuḍāḷ, Bāṇḍā and other places and held them for some time[1].

But this occupation proved to be of a short duration. With the capture of Phoṅḍā on the 6th May 1675[2] and the occupation of the district of Kanara, further south by Shivājī, in 1675, the hold of Bijāpūr on Kuḍāḷ, Bāṇḍā and other places in the extreme south of the district came to an end[3].

---

[1] J. Sarkar, o.c. 225-228, 337. Shivājī made an unsuccessful attempt to conquer the territory of Goa by a stratagem in October 1668; but the suspicion of the Portuguese Viceroy was roused and he insulted Shivājī's ambassador. On hearing of it, Shivājī assembled an army of 10,000 foot and 1,000 horse threatening to invade the Bardes and Salsette districts of Goa, in person. From the north of Rājāpur he marched to Veṅgurlē inspecting all his forts in that quarter "changing their men and putting in (fresh) provision and ammunition" and then in December returned to Rajgad as he found "the Portuguese well prepared to give him a hot reception".—J. Sarkar, o.c. 234-35.

While Shivājī had been to and escaped from Āgrā Aṇṇājī Datto, who was Deshpāṇḍe of Saṅgameshvar, had charge of the Dābhoḷ Subha, Moro Piṅgaḷe, the Peshvā of Rājāpurī and Rāygaḍ—Jervis, 92.

In March 1672, Shivājī marched from Rāygaḍ with 10,000 men, levied a large contribution from the Dekkan and returned to Rāygaḍ without interruption—Orme, 30-31; In October. 1673, the troops from the Sidi's and the Moghal ships landed in the Nāgoṭhṇā river and laid the villages waste, but Shivājī's troops arrived unexpectedly from Rāygaḍ and inflicted a defeat on the Sidi—Orme, 38-39; Shivājī in April 1674 returned to Rāygaḍ and in June was crowned there with great pomp—Orme, 40; After the rains, Moro Paṇḍit came down to Kalyāṇ with 10,000 men and sent to Bassein to demand Chauth from the Portuguese. At the same time, a fleet from Mushat appeared before Bassein with 600 Arabs, who plundered villages. At the end of the year Shivājī with reinforcements having joined Moro Paṇḍit, the whole army marched up the Ghats towards Junnar but after ravaging the country, they returned to Rāygaḍ in Feb. 1675-Orme, 38, 45, 46, 47—After the rains of 1675 a large Moghal fleet came from Surat to Bombay and proceeded down the coast as far as Veṅgurlē, which they burnt. By this time, Shivājī's fleet put to sea from Vijaydurg and Rajāpur but did not fall in with the enemy. A Moghal force at the same time came down to Kalyāṇ and threatened districts south of Bombay but soon after returned above the ghats. On this Shivājī's troops returned to the area.—Orme, 51, 54. J. Sarkar maintains that arriving at Rājāpur on 22 March 1675, Shivājī spent three days there ordering 40 ships to go to Veṅgurlē with all speed and there wait for troop commands. Next he marched to his town of Kudal and on April 6th, laid siege to Phoṇḍa, the most important Bijāpuri fort near Goa—J. Sarkar, 239.

[2] Shivājī himself followed his army in the month of March visiting Rājāpur on the way, where he kept his magazines of war for his southern territories in the Koṅkaṇ—Orme, 51, 52; J. Sarkar, o.c. 240.

[3] However, the usual operations on the coast were continued notwithstanding Shivājī's absence, on account of his expedition to the Karnāṭak. Moropant took 10,000 men against Jañjīrā in August, 1676 and in October, Sidi Sambal set out on a cruise of retaliation. He burnt Jaitāpur at the mouth of the Rājāpūr river in December 1676, but Rājāpūr itself was too well defended to be attacked and in the meantime Moro Pant's attack on Jañjīrā had been beaten off. In the following season, 1677-78, the Sidi's fleet plundered on the coast as usual. In revenge for this, Marāṭhā

(Contd. on next page)

CHAPTER 2.

History.

SAMBHAJI.

Sambhājī succeeded Shivājī in 1680 A.D. He drew the wrath of Auraṅgzeb, upon himself for giving asylum to the emperor's son Akbar[1]. Auraṅgzeb now descended in the Deccan with a large army and the later Moghal-Marāṭhā conflict, destined to last till the death of Auraṅgzeb in 1707, began.

The district suffered from the Moghal invasion early in the reign of Sambhājī. In 1683[2], Moazzam, the son of Auraṅgzeb descended into the Koṅkaṇ with a large army. He brought the area stretching from Goa to Veṅgurlē under his control[3]. But the difficulties in that area increased greatly. And the prince decided to return to Ahmadnagar. The Moghal army suffered much from fatigue, pestilence and the harassing tactics of the Marāṭhās[4]. Earlier Sambhājī's invasion of Goa, and the Portuguese-Marāṭhā conflict

---

ships and men were sent to Koṅkaṇ in July 1678—Orme, 64, 70, 72, J. Sarkar, o.c. 257. In March 1680, Shivājī and the English made an agreement against the Sidi fleet. J. Sarkar, 259. Towards the close of November 1679, a Marāṭhā army of 12,000 men assembled near Rājāpūr. They fired the town on 26th and set out on 20th for Burhānpūr—J. Sarkar. 315.

1 Sambhājī punished with great vigour those who led the opposition against him, and Aṇṇājī Datto, the late Governor of Ratnāgiri district was one of the first who was imprisoned and soon afterwards put to death. His place was taken by Kalushā who eventually displaced the regular revenue officers and farmed out the district.—Nairne, 76; Orme, 96, 105, Jervis, 108.

In May 1681 Sultān Akbar, the fourth son of Auraṅgzeb, having been in rebellion against his father, fled with 400 Rajputs to Sambhājī and arrived at Pālī near Nagoṭhṇā on July 1st, where he remained and was treated with the greatest respect till Sambhājī came down in September, and they returned together to Rāyagaḍ—Orme, 105, 107. Sambhājī gave him a house and fixed allowance but after a time began to treat him with less respect—Elliot, VII, 309, 312; Rev. Sabino D'Souza, 16; V. S. Bendre, Sambhājī Mahārāj Yāñche Charitra, 186, 199; Sardesai, 296.

2 In the beginning of 1683, the English Company's ship President on her voyage up the coast was attacked off the Saṅgameshvar river by some Arab vessels which were afterwards found to be in Sambhājī's pay. The President lost eleven men killed and thirty-one wounded—Orme, 120. At this time, Sultān Akbar went to the Dutch factory at Veṅgurlē with the intention of leaving the country, but was prevailed on to return. Orme, 125.

3 When Sultān Moazzam with 40,000 cavalry, forced the ghāṭs, Sambhājī, sensing that his force could not stand before them in the field, left garrisons in his strongholds and retired with the main body of his army to Rājāpūr, between which and Goa are six rivers—Orme, 132, 133. The prince sacked Veṅgurlē as a punishment for its former protection of Sultān Akbar, but the Dutch successfully defended themselves in their fortified factory—Orme, 133.

4 "On reaching the village of Sampgāṅv the fort of that place was invested (by Moazzam). The besiegers showed great bravery and took the fort in two days. The air of the place did not suit the invaders. The enemy swarmed around on every side, and cut off the supplies, on one side was sea, and on the two other sides were mountains full of poisonous trees and serpents. The enemy cut down the grass, which was a cause of great distress to man and beast and they had no food but cocoanuts and the grain called Kudun which acted like poison upon them—Elliot, VII, 314.

also affected the southern parts of the district[1]. In 1689, Sambhājī, on his return journey from Malkāpūr to Raygaḍ was staying at Saṅgameshvar[2]. He was surprised and captured by the Moghal general Muqrrab Khān (February 1689). He was taken to Auraṅgzeb and executed under his orders (March 1689)[3]. This was a serious blow to the Marāṭhās. The Sidi of Jañjīrā, now officially recognised as the Admiral of the Moghals, occupied Añjanvel and Suvarṇdurg[4]. In the south, Khem Savant by a policy of friendship with the Moghals increased his territory[5]. The Portuguese, although a decadent power at this time, took advantage of the Marāṭhā reverses, and attacked the Marāṭhā fleet and burnt three ships, the largest of thirty-two guns and carrying three hundred men in 1695 A. D. at the mouth of the Rājāpūr river[6].

The district thus continued to suffer till the end of Auraṅgzeb's reign At the time of the death of Auraṅgzeb, Kānhojī Āṅgre was in command of the Marāṭhā fleet. He adhered to the side of Tārābāī in her efforts against Shāhū, who had now returned to the

---

[1] Nairne, 78; Orme, 134, 141-45.

[2] Sambhājī spent his time between Panhālā, Vishālgaḍ and Saṅgameshvar and was at last abandoned by Sultān Akbar, who in October 1686 found at Rājāpūr a ship commanded by an Englishman and sailed in her to Persia about the middle of 1689—Nairne, 78, V. S. Bendre, o.c. 211; Ind. Ant. II, 320.

[3] A small party of Moghal cavalry set off from Kolhāpur and having got close to Saṅgameshvar, before the alarm was given, succeeded in capturing Sambhājī. Khafi khān says that he had two or three thousand horses with him and was told of the approach of the hostile force. which consisted of two thousand horse and a thousand foot, but would not believe it. This may be true and yet they may have been quite unavailable for help, as Saṅgameshvar is so closely hemmed in between the hills and the creek that in the supposed absence of danger the guard would probably be at some distance. Only two or three hundred of the Moghal force surprised Sambhājī and Kalushā with a party of the Marāthās tried to save him, and was himself wounded—Elliot. VII. 338; Orme, 163, 305; G. S. Sardesai, I, 313-14; Jervis, 109; Nairne, 78-79.

[4] Nairne, 79. In the south Rājārām did what he could but Suvarṇdurg and Añjanvel in the north had passed out of the hands of the Marāṭhās into those of Habshī—Jervis 109. The Habshī had added by 1699 the lower fort namely Paḍkoṭ to Añjanvel fort—Jervis, 92.

[5] Rev. Sabino D'Souza, 26. Phond Sāvant, fearful of Bharatgaḍ failing into the hands of a chief by name Bavḍekar cut the great well through rock and finding water, built the fort in 1701, only three or four miles from Mālvaṇ and immediately afterwards the Pant of Bāvḍā built Bhagavantgad on the other side of the river—Nairne, 79.

[6] Nairne, 80; Shortly after 1697, Dābhoḷ was given to Shirke family, Ind. Ant. II, 280.

[6] By 1697, when the whole coast was given up to piracy, the notorious English pirate, Capt. Kidd appeared in these seas to add to the general terror. On one occasion he escaped from a Dutch and English Squadron and got to Rājāpūr, and off that port plundered a Bombay vessel. His ship was the adventure galley of thirty guns and thirty oars, and with a crew of 200 Europeans—Nairne, 81. c/f Bruce, III, 237, 271.

CHAPTER 2. — History. ANGRES.

Marāṭhā homeland from the Moghal camp[1]. But in 1713, mainly due to the persuasion of Bāḷājī Vishvanath, the Peshvā of Shāhū[2], Kānhojī acknowledged Shāhū as the king of the Marāṭhās. He was confirmed as Admiral of the Marāṭhā fleet and placed in charge of the coastline from Kolābā to Veṅgurlē, with control over the inland of Pālgaḍ, Rasāḷgaḍ, Khārepāṭaṇ and Rājāpūr[3].

Kānhojī Āṅgre soon made his power felt in all directions with the Marāṭhā fleet now dominating the coast, the English, Portuguese and the Sidis all tried to attack Kānhojī and weaken his power, but without any success. The attack on Vijaydurg, Kānhojī's main naval station, by the English and the Portuguese on 17th June 1718 ended in miserable failure[3]. The English made another attack on Vijaydurg in 1720 A.D. This too resulted in failure. The English and the Portuguese carried out a joint expedition against Kolābā, the principal seat of Kānhojī. The attack failed and they had to withdraw with heavy losses[4].

---

[1] Shāhū advanced as far as Rāngṇā, south of the Phoṇḍā ghāṭ and laid siege to that fort and Tarabai, widow of Rajaram, fled to Mālvaṇ. Shāhū however, did not descend into the Koṅkaṇ and Tārābāī, in 1710, having collected a force and being supported by the Sāvants, again went up the ghāṭs and established herself at Kolhāpūr—Nairne, 81.

[1] Orme says that Kānhojī held Suvarṇdurg against Shāhū and that the latter built the Harṇai forts in order to reduce him to obedience but Kānhojī took them. This must probably have happened between 1707 and 1713. The Marāṭhās in 1707 equipped a fleet of 60 vessels under a leader independent of Āṅgre to cruise between Bombay and Goa, partly to oppose the Arab pirates, who were now thoroughly organised and had now ships carrying 30 to 50 guns. Between 1712 and 1720, four actions are recorded between the Portuguese and the Arabs, the first of which was at the mouth of the Rājāpur river—Orme, History of the Military Transactions, I, 407-409.

[1] By 1680, the naval officer at Kolābā was Bhivajī Gujar. Kānhojī Āṅgre was the son of Tukojī who served first under Shahājī and then under Shivājī distinguished himself in the naval engagements against the Sidis and in 1690, was promoted to the post of Second in Command of Rājārām's fleet. In 1694 he was made 'Sarkhel'. After the death of Sidhojī Gujar in 1698, Kānhoji became the admiral of the Marāṭhā navy—Apte. The Maratha Navy, (Bom. Uni.) 240.

[2] Bāḷājī Vishvanāth, a Chitpavan of the family of Bhaṭ and town of Shrivardhan, a little north of Bāṇkoṭ was the chief agent in the negotiations which led to the final arrangements and this was the first important service of the great man, who was soon appointed the Peshvā—Nairne 82.

[3] G. S. Sardesai o.c. II, 25, 26; Nairne, 82; Orme, History, I, 408.

[4] To reduce Āṅgre's power, the English attacked Vijaydurg not less than seven times and Khānderi not less than three times, not to speak of their march on Kolābā in combination with the Portuguese. But each time they received a reverse. Apte, 243.

[4] Apte, 243. The Portuguese burnt sixteen of Āngre's vessels in the Vijaydurg river, but they could do nothing against the port—Nairne, 87.

[4] Expedition against Āṅgre—Bombay Castle, 6-9-1720; 10th September 1720: 13th September 1720; 8th October 1720; 15th October 1720; 24th October 1720; 13th November 1720—Shrivāstava, Āṅgres of Kolābā in British Records, 5-6.

[4] Khem Sāvant had too invaded. Āṅgre's country and destroyed it as far as Rājāpūr and four of Āṅgre's grabs were sunk in Rājāpūr river-Bombay Castle, Monday, 24th October 1720—Shrivastava, Āṅgres of Kolābā in British Records, 6.

In 1724, the Dutch attacked Vijaydurg with a total strength of a thousand sailors and soldiers. Rudrājī Anant, the commandant of the fort let the Dutch make the landing and then attacked them vigorously. The Dutch had to retreat with heavy losses[1].

Kānhojī died on 20th June 1729[2] A.D. Till his death he was the master of the entire coastal area, excepting Dābhoḷ and Añjanvel held by the Sidis of Jañjirā. In 1731, the district was divided between the ruling houses of Sātārā and Kolhāpur. All area south of Vijaydurg was taken over by Kolhāpūr while the territory north of Vijaydurg came into the possession of the Rājās of Sātārā[3].

The Sāvants of Sāvantvāḍī in the south were now growing in importance. Lakhan Sāvant had, after being driven out by Shivājī come to terms, undertaking to him at Kudāl that he would neither build nor repair any forts and that he would entertain no large body of troops. Lakhan Sāvant died in 1665 and was succeeded by his brother Phoṇḍ Sāvant, who in turn was succeeded by his son Khem Sāvant in 1675. Phoṇḍ Sāvant who maintained a large army had made territorial gains by his policy of assisting the Moghals. He adhered to the cause of Shāhū, and was, as a result confirmed in his possessions. He died in 1704 and was succeeded by his nephew, Phoṇḍ Sāvant.

After the death of Kānhojī, of his sons, Sekhojī, succeeded him at Kolābā, while Sambhājī took charge at Suvarṇdurg. Sekhojī did not rule long. After his death, on 29th August 1733[4], disputes broke out between his brothers Sambhājī and Mānājī and were resolved only by division of the estates. The territory from Suvarṇdurg to Vijaydurg continued with Sambhājī who was given the title of Sarkhel, while Mānāji was allotted the share held by Sekhojī namely the territory north of Suvarṇdurg with headquarters at Kolābā[5].

To check the growing power of the Marāṭhā fleet, the English in 1730, formed an offensive and defensive alliance, with Sāvantvāḍī. They agreed that neither should attack the ships of the other, that

---

[1] Apte, *Ibid*. The Dutch attacked Vijaydurg with a fleet of seven ships of the line, two bomb ketches and some land forces but they succeeded no better than the others. Nairne 86.

[2] Surendra Nath Sen; The Military System of the Marāṭhās, page 189.

[3] Vijaydurg itself of course remained with the Āngres. The Sidi had still retained the districts of Mahāḍ, Rāygaḍ, Dābhoḷ and Añjanvel.

[4] G. S. Sardesai, II, 139. The English formed an alliance with the Sāvants of Vāḍi, against Sekhojī in 1730. But it turned futile. In 1730. Sekhojī captured two merchant ships of the Portuguese, Apte, 244; Shrivastava, Letter No. 55, p. 16.

[5] G. S. Sardesai, II, 177. By the Peshvā's appearance on the scene, a treaty was concluded between the brothers. A new title of 'Vajarat mab' was conferred upon Mānājī while Sambhājī continued to hold the hereditary title of "Sarkhel", Apte, 245, Shrivastava, 16.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

ANGRES.

the British wrecks should receive all the aid and assistance, that their ports should be open and free to each other for trade, that they should join to attack the sons of Kānhojī, and that the British should supply the Sar Desāī with war-like stores and artillery. The Marāṭhās now declared war on the Sidis of Jañjirā. The immediate cause of the hostilities was the sudden and unprovoked attack of Sidi Saat, the Jañjirā general on the important temple of Parashurām, near Chipḷūṇ, in 1727. Property was plundered, the idols were desecrated and the priests and laymen alike were subjected to atrocities[1].

It took some time to organise the campaign. The main objects of the war were to release the Marāṭhā capital Rāygaḍ from the Sidi's control, capture of Añjanvel and Govaḷkoṭ, and if possible the occupation of Jañjirā and the extinction of the Sidi's power. In June, Rāygaḍ fell to the Marāṭhās. However, the death of Sekhojī Āṅgre in 1733, and the disputes for succession between his brothers affected the campaign. The campaign was conducted in a desultory fashion throughout 1734 and 1735 near Bāṇkoṭ and Govaḷkoṭ. But the blow from the Marāṭhās came in 1736. Chimṇājī Appā suddenly attacked Sidi Saat, the Jañjirā general as he lay encamped near Revas. In the fight that ensued at the villages of Chari and Kamarlee, Sidi Saat, fell fighting, together with his colleague Sidi Jakul and 1300 followers. The Sidis concluded peace with the Marāṭhās. Of their main landports, only Añjanvel and Govaḷkoṭ remained with them[2].

The disputes between Mānājī and Sambhājī, notwithstanding the division of Kānhojī's estates agreed upon, continued and led to open clashes. In 1737, Mānājī, with the help of Peshvā, repulsed an attack by Sambhājī and the Portuguese. In 1740, when Sambhājī's

---

[1] G. S. Sardesai II, 136.

[1] The offensive and defensive alliance of the British with Phoṇd Sāvant in 1730 and with Sidis in 1733 had no particular result. But in December 1738, Commodore Bagwel with four grabs was cruising in search of Sambhājī's fleet and on the 22nd came upon nine of his grabs and thirteen gallivats issuing from the Vijaydurg river. They stood up the coast but the Commodore immediately bore down on them and they took refuge in the Rājāpūr river, displaying all their flags. They ran up the river further than the English could follow them and the Commodore could only give them a few broadsides, which, however, did much damage and killed their admiral. In 1740, Sambhājī took possession of Bharatgaḍ, Bhagvantgaḍ and the greater part of the Vāḍī possessions in the Sālshī province. Nairne, 88; in 1740 Sambhājī threatened Kolābā itself. But Peshvā's timely help saved Mānājī. The English too, had at this time come to help Mānājī with their squadron—Apte, 246. Mānājī rendered some help to the Peshvā army during 1737-39, when it was attacking the Portuguese at Bassein. Apte—246. Shrivastava Letter No. 84, p. 31. It was reported that by December 1735 that Sambhājī and Khem Sāvant had come to terms—Shrivastava, letter No. 94, p. 29.

[2] G. S. Sardesai, II, 140; Shrivastava, Letter No. 89, p. 29.

fleet appeared before Kolābā, the English came to Mānājī's help and drove off Sambhājī south of Suvarṇdurg[1].

Sambhājī died on 12th January 1741[1a]. His estate was claimed by Mānājī who was at Kolābā. This claim was disputed by Sambhājī's half brother Tuḷājī. Shāhū, the king of the Marāṭhās, declared that he would confer the Sarkhelship held previously by Sambhājī on any one of the Āṅgre family who would capture Āñjanvel and Govaḷkot[2]. Tuḷājī undertook the campaign and captured Āñjanvel and Govaḷkoṭ on 25th January 1745[3]. With the capture of these two places by the Marāṭhās, the Sidis lost all their possessions in the district[4].

Tuḷājī succeeded his brother Sambhājī to the command of the Marāṭhā fleet, south of Suvarṇdurg. He had his headquarters at Vijaydurg. He very soon, came into conflict with the Peshvā, then bent on gaining complete possession of the Marāṭhā fleet. The Portuguese who had lost Bassein in 1739, were trying to get back their possession and readily found out the enemies of the Peshvā. They came to terms with Tuḷājī against the Peshvā. The Sāvantvāḍī Desāis were also victims of Tuḷājī's aggression.

Soon after his accession Tuḷājī attacked the Sāvants, took Bhagvantgaḍ and Bhairavgaḍ, crossed the Kuḍāḷ river, defeated the Sāvants at Bāmbarḍi and compelled the Sāvants to cede two-fifth of the Sālshī revenue. At the same time the Portuguese seized five

---

[1] Mānāji's relations with the Peshvā, too, steadily deteriorated. The relations between Shankarajīpant Phadke and Manājī were not friendly either. Mānājī had captured a ship of a certain merchant by name, Nathas, in whom Shankarajī was interested. As an answer to this move Shankarajī captured a ship of Khārepāṭaṇ possessing Mānājī's permit. Mānājī demanded its release through Chimṇājī Appā. But shrewd Shankarajī explained to Chimṇājī how it was a question of right rather than the mere release of a ship. In 1744, Peshvā's men took the fort of Bhairavgad belonging to Mānājī. To retaliate, the latter dispatched three ghurabs and thirty galbats to Bassein to impede the Peshvās armada—Apte, 247—Foot note. Mānājī was amicable towards Tuḷājī, his brother and successor of Sambhājī—Mānājī died on 13th September 1758. *Ibid*, Shrivastava, Letter No. 183, p. 63: Letter No. 188, p. 67; Letter No. 195, p. 69. Letter of Shāhū Rājā to the President, Bombay, Shrivastava, Letter No. 202, p. 77 (Received by the Messenger on 8th October 1740); reply to Shāhū Rājā, letter No. 202, p. 77.

[1a] Surendra Nath Sen; The Military System of the Marathas, p. 198.

[2] G. S. Sardesai, II, 139.

[3] *Ibid*, II, 140, 247.

[a] Shāhū was highly gratified at this success and named the places Gopālgaḍ (Āñjanvel) and Govindgaḍ (Govaḷkoṭ). But these names did not come into popular use. The places still go by their old names—G. S. Sardesai, II, 247. Foot note; Apte, 248; Shrivastava, Letter No. 314, p. 121.

[a] Āñjanvel was blockaded by Āṅgre's fleet but the fleet escaped to Suvarṇdurg on the appearance of the English fleet, however, Bālājī Bājirao Peshvā wrote to the President, Bombay. Shāhū Rājā also wrote to that effect, Shrivastava, Letters No. 313, 314, 315, 316, 317; pp. 120-122.

[4] G. S. Sardesai, II, 140.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

ANGRES.

of the southern districts, together with the fort of Yeshvantgaḍ. At this time the Sāvant, Rāmchandra was a minor with his uncle Jayarām, acting as a regent. The Sāvants struck back and in 1745, the five districts were recovered and for a time, Bardes was also taken. Three years later, in 1748, Tuḷājī was defeated with heavy loss at Kuḍāḷ, was pursued as far as Sangvā near Ratnāgirī and his country was laid waste. Bhāratgaḍ and the districts between the Kuḍāḷ and the Garner rivers were recovered and the third raid of Tuḷājī was successfully beaten off.

Besides attacking Sāvantvāḍī which was under the protection of the Peshvā, Tuḷājī, started depredations openly in the Peshvā's territory. At the end of 1747, he captured, Mudagaḍ, south of the fort of Vishāḷgaḍ. The Peshvā, the Pratinidhī, the Amātya of Bāvḍā and the Sāvant, all came to terms and continued to drive him out. The fort Mudagaḍ was recaptured in April 1748[1].

The Peshvā now decided to put an end to this intolerable situation, arising out of the Portuguese–Tuḷājī combination. His aim was to bring Tuḷājī under his control and prevent him from joining hands with the enemies of the Marāṭhās[2].

Instead of dealing with Tuḷājī alone, the Peshvā took the extraordinary step of joining hands with the English who seized this opportunity of weakening the Marāṭhā fleet.

The treaty between the Marāthās and the English arrived at, on the 29th March 1755, was in the following terms :–

(1) that both the Marāṭhā and the British navy should be under the complete control of the latter;

(2) that whatever ships would be captured from the Āṅgres should be divided half and half between the two;

(3) that after Tuḷājī was overcome, the Marāṭhās should cede to the British Bāṇkoṭ and its fort Himmatgaḍ, afterwards named Fort Victoria together with five villages in that neighbourhood;

(4) that the British should prevent any succour going to Tuḷājī through the sea;

(5) that whatever treasure, ammunition, guns or supplies would be captured or found in the forts and places belonging to the Marāṭhās, should be equally shared.

(6) if the British and the Marāṭhās should jointly attack Mānājī Āṅgre, the island of Khānderi should be ceded to the British[3].

---

1 G. S. Sardesai, II, 247.

2 Shrivastava, Letters No. 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 369-372.

3 G. S. Sardesai, II, 343-345.

3 Agreement between Richard Brouchier and Rāmājīpant for concerted action against Tuḷājī Āṅgre and division of territory–Shrivastava, Letter No. 362, p. 135; Letter No. 367, p. 136.

In the combined Anglo-Marāṭhā operations, the fort of Suvarṇdurg was the first to be captured. Captain William Jones was appointed by the Bombay Council to head the expedition[1]. Rāmājīpant, the Peshvā's subhedār at Kalyāṇ, accompanied him. The fort surrendered on the 3rd April 1755[2], when the Peshvā's generals Jivājī Gavḷī and Khaṇḍojī Mānkar supported the operations from the land. Two other generals, Shamsher Bahādur and Dinkar Mahādev invaded Ratnāgirī which was captured on the 18th February 1756. The Peshvā's troops had earlier captured Añjanvel and Govaḷkoṭ on the 14th January 1756[3].

The allies now turned to Vijaydurg[4]. On the request of the Government of Bombay, the Madras authorities sent troops under Captain Clive and a naval force under Admiral Watson to join the operations.

---

[1] Suvarṇdurg at this time had fifty guns mounted and the three forts on the shore eighty between them—Nairne, 90-92.

[1] Commodore James made sail for Suvarndurg on 22nd March 1755 with the Protector of 44 guns, a ketch of 16 guns and two bomb vessels. The Marāṭhā fleet of seven ghurabs and sixty gallivats with 10,000 men on board, joined him and sailed to Kumbharu Bay. Rāmājīpant had, too, proceeded by land route. Apte, 193-198, 249.

[1] Rāmājīpant sent from Suvarṇdurg, land forces to take Bānkoṭ and Himmatgaḍ and intended going against Dābhol and Jaygaḍ in a day or two, after 12th April 1755. Shrivastava, Letter No. 364, p. 136.

[2] Surendra Nath Sen; The Military System of the Marāthās, p. 205.

[3] Rāmājīpant had attacked and carried the forts of Kanakdurg, Fategaḍ and Goa—Shrivastava, letter No 365, p. 137. Instruction of Nānā to the English to help Shamsher Bahādur in Ratnāgirī—Shrivastava, letter No. 365.

[3] Dinkarpant attacking Ratnāgiri, hence, Commodore James was instructed to lay off large British fleet that port to prevent Āṅgre from throwing in succour—Shrivastava, Letter No. 366, p. 137; Orme, History. I, 407-417.

[3] Five days after the fall of Suvarṇdurg, Commodore James arrived at Bāṇkoṭ. The fort surrendered on the first summons. Com. James handed over the charge to the Marāṭhas and at the end of the rains (October), the fort and nine neighbouring villages (Velās, Veshī, Bāgmāndlā, Shipolā Kuduk, Paṇḍeri, Pevā, Kumble and Dāsgaon) were ceded to the British and its name changed from Himmatgaḍ to Fort Victoria. Nairne, 92.

[3] William Andrew Prince was appointed chief of the ports of Hammuttgurr and Bāṇcoṭe with five villages to the southward of Marbana river and three to the northward with all the dependencies, with reference to the third article of agreement with the Peshvā. Shrivastava—Letter No. 368, p. 138.

[4] Shrivastava Letter Nos. 369, 370, 371, 372, pp. 139-141. Apte, 198-200.

[4] The whole united fleet consisted of four ships of the line of 70, 64, 60 and 50 guns, one of 44, three of 20, a grab of 12, and five bomb-ketches, fourteen vessels in all. Besides the seamen, they had on board a battalion of 800 Europeans with 1,000 sepoys under the command of Lieut. Colonel Clive. Ives says that Marāṭhā army consisted of 5,000 or 6,000 horses and as many foot. Their fleet was three or four ghurabs and forty or fifty gallivats, and was lying in the Rājāpūr creek (about four miles north of Gheria), the small fort of which they had taken before the English fleet arrived. Clive landed at Vijaydurg about 9 p.m. on 12th February 1756—Ives account—Nairne, 94; Orme, History, I, 407-417 (414).

CHAPTER 2.

History.

ANGRES.

On the 7th February 1756, fourteen British ships of war with a force of 800 English troops and a thousand Indians left Bombay under Clive and Watson, all by the sea route. They arrived before Vijaydurg on the 11th February. The firing started on the 12th. At four in the afternoon of the same day, a chance shot falling on one of Āṅgre's ship set fire to his entire fleet and in a short time all the seventy ships belonging to him were burnt to ashes[1]. On the 3rd, the English took possession of the fort. They found in the fort 250 guns, ten lakhs of rupees in cash, six brass mortars and about four thousand pounds worth of goods and valuables[2].

Tuḷājī surrendered to the Marāṭhās. He had been seeking peace terms which were unheeded. The British now demanded the surrender of Tuḷājī which the Marāṭhās refused as they had no orders from the Peshvā to that effect. The British similarly refused to hand over the fort to the Marāṭhās[3].

After the Peshvā had protested to the British for continued possession of Vijaydurg, the allies came to an agreement on 12th October 1756, by which Vijaydurg was handed over to the Marāṭhās, in lieu of Bāṇkoṭ and ten villages to be ceded to the British[4]. The Portuguese wanted to exploit the operations against Tuḷājī to their advantage. They had sent a small force to his help.

---

[1] A little after four o'clock, a shell fell into 'Restoration', which set her on fire and very soon after, Āṅgre's whole fleet was on fire and they were all destroyed–Shrivastava–Report of Charles Watson, Letter No. 371.

[1] Account given by Ives, who was surgeon on board Admiral Watson's ship at the taking of Gheria–Nairne, 89, 93–95; Orme, History I. 407-417.

[2] Captain Forbes took possession of the fort. Charles Watson had sent for Rāmājīpant to discuss terms about Tuḷājī–Shrivastava–Report of Charles Watson from 'Kent', on 14th February 1756, Letter No. 371, pp. 141-142; Letter No. 372.

[2] According to Nairne, "There were found in it 200 pieces of cannon, six brass mortars, and a great quantity of ammunition and military and naval stores of all kinds. The money and effects of other kinds amounted to 1,20,000 pounds sterling", p. 94. After admiral Watson's death in the following year, the E. I. C. erected a monument to him in Westminster Abbey and a pillar commemorative of the capture of Suvarṇdurg is still standing at Shooter's Hill near London–Nairne, 95; Orme, History, I., 407-417.

[3] Shrivastava, Letters No. 370, 371, 373, 375, 376, 380, 382.

[3] After Tuḷājī's subjugation the Province of Vijaydurg was placed under the admiralty of Anandrao Dhulap and Suvarṇdurg in charge of Rāmji Mahādeo. The charge of Suvarṇdurg was given to Haripant Phaḍke after Rāmjī's death–Apte, 249.

[4] Articles of agreement settled by Thomas Byfeld and John Spencer Esquire on the part of East India Company with Bāḷājī Bājirao Pant Pradhān–Shrivastava, letter No. 383.

[4] On his arrival at Cheriah (Vijaydurg) on 26th October, Crommelin had delivered over the fort to Govind Sevrām Pant, with 125 guns and 7623 shots and given him 5 Barrels and 171 filed cartridges. Shrivastava, Letter No. 150.

CHAPTER 2. History. ANGRES.

They also attacked the Marāṭhā post on Phoṇḍā, south of Goa on the 28th June 1756. However, the Portuguese attack had failed. The Portuguese Governor, Cont. De Alva was killed and the Portuguese lost their guns and arms to the Marāṭhās.

Tuḷājī remained in detention of the Marāṭhās till his death in 1786 A.D.[1].

FIRST ANGLO-MARATHA WAR.

In 1774 A.D. the first Anglo-Marāṭhā war broke out. It lasted till 1782 A.D. shortly after the treaty of Sālbaye had been concluded, the Marāṭhā Navy, in ignorance of the conclusion of the treaty, attacked the "Ranger", a small brig of 12 guns under the command of Lt. Pruanthen on its way to Calicut. The attack took place on 8th April, 1783, on the coast near Ratnāgirī. "The fight was long and fierce. The shot fell thick. The assailants boarded by hundreds. The deck was strewn with the English dead and dying". Five officers and 28 men were lost on the British side. The Marāṭhās lost eight distinguished men and about 75 wounded. Dhuḷap captured five English vessels and took them to his port of Vijaydurg[2]."

---

[1] Tuḷājī, however, had proposed to the English to raise disturbance in the Marāṭha country provided he was given Gheria (Vijaydurg) in November 1768–Shrivastava, Letter No. 389. But his sons declared that these letters were not from their father, hence the President at Bombay took no notice. *Ibid.*

[1] Raghūjī Āngre (1764-1793) appealed to the English for help in April 1746 because, Ramjī and Visājī Pant had collected a body of men in his neighbourhood–Shrivastava, Letter No. 390. Raghūjī had imprisoned Sadobā, the pretender–*Ibid.* Letter No. 391. Bhāu Paṇḍit (Sadobā) marched from Ratnāgirī, by 1776, and after taking many forts got as far as Rājmāchy upon the Ghāṭ where he had a battle with the Peshvā's army, in which he obtained a victory–Raghūjī's letter to President, Bombay dated 1st November 1776–Shrivastava, Letter No 392. Raghūjī was threatened by the English who demanded Sadobā. *Ibid.* Letter, No. 395. Raghūjī captured 'Chichester' and Gallivatwolf'–Apte, p. 250 for Raghujī's help to Peshvā in arresting Sadobā.

[2] G. S. Sardesai, III, 122.

[2] In 1774, five or six Portuguese merchantmen sailed from Goa to Surat convoyed by a sixty-four gun ship, but were attacked by the Marāṭhās, the frigate put to fight, and the rest taken into Gheria. In 1780, a ship carrying despatches from the Court of Directors was taken off the coast and carried to Vijaydurg and the officer was sent as a prisoner to Rasāḷgaḍ–Nairne, 107.

[2] The English ship 'Ranger', accompanied by three Shibars and a batela, with ammunition, men and seven captains of note on board, was sailing from Bombay to Calicut. Near Ratnāgirī, the English squadron was attacked by the Marāṭhā Navy. The Ranger had 12 guns, the English ships were too strong for the groups inspite of their terrific fire. The Marāṭhās boarded the English vessels and cut their crew in a stubborn *melee*. The English ships were captured with great loss of men to them. In great triumph Anandrao carried the trophy to Vijaydurg. But he had to return the prize after the Treaty of Sālbaye–Apte, 252.

[3] The Ministerial party headed by Nānā Phaḍṇavis was very powerful at Poona court. This Bāḷājī Janārdhan Bhānū, alias Nānā, was a native of

CHAPTER 2.

History.
FIRST ANGLO-MARATHA WAR.

As the treaty had been concluded, of which the Marāṭhā fleet was not aware, on the protest of the English, the Marāṭhās restored the ships and the goods that had been seized and declared the incident closed.

In 1765, a force under Major Gordon and Captain Watson took the forts of Mālvaṇ and Reḍī. Naming it Fort Augustus, the Bombay Government meant to keep Mālvaṇ; but as it did not pay, on his promising not to molest their ships, to give security for future good conduct, and to re-pay losses and charges to the amount of £38,289 12s. (Rs. 3,82,896), Mālvaṇ was made over to the Rājā of Kolhāpūr; similarly, on his promising to keep the peace and pay a sum of £20,000 (Rs. 2,00,000), Reḍī was at the close of 1766, restored to Khem Sāvant, the Vāḍī Desāī. The £20,000 (Rs. 2,00,000) were raised by a thirteen years mortgage of the Veṅgurlē revenues, and to induce the mortgagee, Vithojī Kumti, to advance the amount, Mr. Mostyn, besides procuring two Vāḍī hostages was obliged to promise that a small factory should be established at Veṅgurlē and the English flag hoisted[1]. The hostages escaped, and the mortgagee's agents were driven from their revenue stations. At the end of 13 years, though they had prevented the mortgagee from recovering the revenue, the Sāvants demanded the district. This was refused and Veṅgurlē was attacked and taken on 4th June 1780, with a loss to the English of much private and some public property[2].

Proud of this success and of the marriage of Khem Sāvant with the niece of Mahādjī Shinde, the Sāvants renewed their piracies, and joined by the Kolhāpūr fleet, caused grievous losses to trade[3]. In 1792, finding that an expedition was organised to punish him, the Rājā of Kolhāpūr offered to indemnify all who had suffered from his piracies, and to allow the company to establish factories, at Mālvaṇ and Kolhāpūr[4]. These terms were accepted; but next year the

Veḷās, a village adjoining Bāṇkoṭ and within three or four miles of Shrivardhan, the birth place of Bāḷāji Vishvanāth, the first Peshvā. Nānā's brother Gaṅgādhar was subhedar of Vijaydurg, and there built the temple of Rāmeshvar, which is remarkable by its gloomy position, and by the road down to it being cut through the solid rock at a very steep incline—Nairne, 103; Haripant Phaḍke was a native of Guhāgar, as was Gaṅgādhar Shāstrī, later, murdered at Paṇḍharpūr; the Paṭvardhan chiefs of Miraj originally came from the village of Gaṇpatipuḷe near Ratnāgirī; the Ghorpaḍe chiefs of Ichalkarañji from Mhāpaṇ near Veṅgurlē: the chiefs of Rāmdurg and Nārguṇḍ of the Bhāve family were also Koṅkaṇī Brāhmaṇs and Bājirao's second wife was of the Oke family of Guhāgar if not herself a native of that place.

[1] Grant Duff, III, 70.

[2] Nairne, 106-107.

[3] In 1786, the Rājā of Kolhāpūr himself took a large army into the Koṅkaṇ, stormed Bhāratgad, Nivti (a well known fort on the coast between Māḷvaṇ and Veṅgurlē) and Vishāḷgaḍ which commands the most level part of the southern Koṅkaṇ. On account of the Sāvants getting assistance from Goa, he evacuated Nivti and Veṅgurlē but appointed mamlatdars and other officials to the rest of the newly conquered territory—Nairne, 108.

[4] Grant Duff, III, 72.

[4] Shrivastava, Letter No. 400.

complaints of the traders were as bitter as ever. Meanwhile in 1785, war broke out between the Sāvants and Kolhāpūr, and with varying success lasted for 23 years. In 1793, except Mālvaṇ, the whole of the south coast was in the possession of the Sāvants[1].

In May 1790, a force left Bombay to co-operate with the army which had first invaded Ṭipoo Sultān's territory. It was disembarked at Saṅgameshvar, and after halting there five days marched up the Ambā Ghāṭ.

Although there was artillery with it, a second detachment went by the same route in the following November. The entrance to the river Jaygaḍ was at this time defended by forts on each side. A wall of communication ran up the side of the hill on the south shore from a battery of eleven embrasures on a level with the water, which like the other fortifications was in very bad repair. The factory at Fort Victoria was found useful during this war as the Resident purchased, and received from Poona between eleven and twelve thousand bullocks and sent them down the coast for the use of the army[2].

In October 1802, on account of the victory of Yeshvantrāo Hoḷkar over Shinde, Bājīrāv II left Poona. Having released Mādhavrāo Rāste from Rāygaḍ, he went down to Mahāḍ. He had with him six to eight thousand men, and at his request, an English vessel was sent down to Bāṇkoṭ to take him up to Bombay. He wished to send his family and the families of his attendants to Suvarṇdurg, but the Commandant refused to receive them. Grain for the subsistence of his force had to be sent from Bassein and Bombay, this being the year of great famine. The *Sar Subhedār* of the Koṅkaṇ, Khaṇḍerāv Rāste, joined him at Mahāḍ. About November 22, Hoḷkar with his army came down the Pār Ghāṭ, when the Peshvā fled to Suvarṇdurg, while some of his followers took refuge in the English factory at Fort Victoria. Suvarṇdurg, however, was found to be in a defenceless condition and the Peshvā, therefore, embarked in one of his own vessels escorted by two belonging to Bombay Government. By the time the Peshvā had arrived at Bassein, Hoḷkar with 5,000 troops, had taken, with very little resistance, Rāygaḍ and Suvarṇdurg and in the latter, the Peshvā's family[3].

Being supported by the British, the Peshvā was quick to take vengeance on the chiefs, whose armies were much reduced. A Marāṭhā force was sent against Suvarṇdurg on account of the

---

[1] In 1792, while these events were in progress, the Bombay Government had prepared an armament against Kolhāpūr, but this was not despatched, as a treaty was made by which the English were allowed to have a factory at the island of Mālvaṇ (Sindhudurg) and to hoist their flag there till all claims were paid. Nairne c/f. Aitchison's Treaties, VI, 94.

[2] Nairne, 108.

[3] Col. Close who had been awaiting the Peshvā's arrival in Bombay with Mount Stuart Elphinstone then his assistant went to Bassein immediately on his arrival and there on December 31 was concluded the Treaty of Bassein. Nairne, 110-11.

CHAPTER 2. History. THE SAVANTS.

killedār Hari Ballāḷ Keḷkar having thrown off his allegiance, and after an unsuccessful investment a small British force was encamped at Keḷshī, eight miles north of Suvarṇdurg, and the garrison of the island was said to be 800 men, Arabs and Marāṭhās, but it was eventually surrendered without resistance and 200 native infantry put in until the orders of the Peshvā should be received[1].

In 1803, however, the Portuguese overran and permanently annexed the districts of Dicholi, Sankli, Pedna and Phoṇḍā. In 1806, Kolhāpūr took Bhāratgaḍ or Masurā and Nivti and in return the Sāvants worsted the country, re-took Nivti and Reḍī, and laid siege to Bhāratgaḍ. Coming in strength, the Kolhāpūr troops raised the siege and carried the war into the Vāḍī territory. At Chaṅkal, a pitched battle ending in favour of Kolhāpūr, was followed by the siege of Vāḍī. But Lakshmi Bāī, the regent of Vāḍī, by inducing Siddojīrāv Nimbāḷkar of Nipāṇī to enter their territory, forced the Kolhāpūr troops to retire. Next year (1809), Phoṇḍ Sāvant, the new Vāḍī chief, was defeated by Mānsing Pāṭaṇkar, the Kolhāpūr general; he was pursued and his lands laid waste as far north as Rājāpūr. In 1810, the Kolhāpūr troops were again forced to leave the Koṅkaṇ, and Reḍī and Nivti fell into the Sāvant's hands[2].

In 1812, as part of the settlement between the Peshvā and the southern Marāṭhā jahgirdars, the Rajāh of Kolhāpūr ceded to the British Government the harbour of Mālvaṇ, including the port and island of Mālvaṇ or Sindhudurg and its dependencies[3].

A similar treaty was entered into by Phoṇḍ Sāvant in 1812, on 3rd October, by which the Sāvant ceded the fort of Veṅgurlē to the British and engaged to give up all his vessels of war[4].

---

[1] Manuscript Records—Nairne, Koṅkaṇ, 111.

[2] Nairne, 112.

[2] The piracies of both these powers had continued unchecked and their serious import to Bombay Presidency may be judged by the fact that Duke of Wellington only two days after the battle of Assaye wrote (with his own hand as was usual to him) a short despatch on the subject to the Bombay Government—MS. records, Nairne, II.

[2] Two brothers named Bāpūjī and Hirājī, who were remembered by persons then living by 1883, as having spent their last days at Mālvaṇ in great poverty, were, when young, noted for the cruelty and daring of their piracies—Foot note, Nairne, 112.

[3] Hamilton, Description of Hindostan, II, 217.

[3] Lord Minto brought them under his power by taking possession of their principal ports and thus preventing their wartime depredations. Chaudhari, 169; Nairne C/F Aitchison, Treaties, VI, 97, 129.

[4] Chaudhuri, 169.

[4] Nivti was left to the Sāvants but a guard of British troops was stationed there to see that no piratical vessels made use of the port. From this time till the cession of the whole Koṅkaṇ, the Bombay Government kept a civil and military establishment both at Mālvaṇ and Veṅgurlē. The cession brought to an end the troubles of the district from the Kolhāpūr State, but the Sāvants by their internal quarrels kept the country in confusion for several years—Asiatic Journal, VIII, 78-79. Hamilton, Description of Hindostan, II, 217.

Shortly afterwards, Phoṇḍ Sāvant III died and during the minority of his son, Khem Sāvant IV (1812-1867), *alias* Bapū Sāhib, Durgā Bāī acted as the regent. In 1813, Durgā Bāī[1] seized the forts of Bhāratgad and Narsiṅggaḍ, which some few years before had been wrested from Vāḍī by Kolhāpūr. The British had, meanwhile guaranteed to defend the Kolhāpūr territory against all attacks, and as Durgā Bāī obstinately refused to give up the forts, a British force under Colonel Dowse recaptured them and restored them to Kolhāpūr. In consequence of Durgā Bāī's refusal to cede the Kolhāpūr forts and to exchange some districts north of the Kuḍāḷ river for the lands held by the British south of that river, war was declared and the districts of Varāḍ and Maland seized[2]. At this time the widow of Shrīrām Sāvant caused fresh trouble by putting forward a person who claimed to be Rāmchandra Sāvant, who, she alleged, had not been murdered in 1807. Her cause found many supporters who moved about the country plundering, on their own account. Such mischief did they play that many of the people, leaving their homes, sought safety in British and the Portuguese territories[3].

Durgā Bāī, now brought to great straits, offered to adjust all causes of quarrel, if the British Government would intervene on her behalf. Her proposals were declined. But even without British help her party was again successful, and order was, for the time, restored. In 1807 in consequence of a Portuguese raid into Usap, the Portuguese fort of Terekhol was plundered. In revenge, the Portuguese attacked Reḍī, but after a fruitless siege of twenty-seven days, were forced to withdraw. About this time, the Vāḍī nobles who held the forts of Bāndā, Nivti and Reḍī, became unmanageable set the chiefs' authority at naught and plundered in all directions including the surrounding British territories.

At the close of the struggle between the British and the Peshvā (September 1816) the transfer of the whole of the Koṅkaṇ was promised to the British. Ṭhāṇā was handed over, but as it was the native country of the Peshvā and of almost all the chief Brāhmaṇ families, the cession of Ratnāgirī was delayed. After the battle of Kirkee (1st November 1817), arrangements were made for its conquest. Suvarṇdurg was, without difficulty, taken in November

[1] This ambitious lady had been always hostile to the British Government and played a tortuous part in the confused politics of the third Marāṭhā war. Mill says that she was unable to check the depredations committed by the armed bands of her State on the territories of the Bombay Presidency—Chaudhuri, *Ibid.*

[2] An expedition under General Keir (1819) marched into the interior of the country and reduced the fortresses to submission—Chaudhuri, 169.

[3] Hamilton, Des. of Hindostan; II, 218.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
THE SAVANTS

1817 by a force under Col. Kennedy[1]. Early in 1818, he reduced Mandangaḍ and other forts in the present Dāpolī sub-division, and shortly afterwards Rāmgaḍ, Pāḷgaḍ and Rāsaḷgaḍ in Kheḍ. Already in January, Col. Prother advancing from the north-east had taken Pālī and Bhorap[2]; and Col. Imlack, from Mālvaṇ occupied Sāḷshi and Devgaḍ, and taking Siddagaḍ, Bhagvantgaḍ and Āchrā, secured the southern frontier[3]. Añjanvel, at the mouth of the Vāsishthī, Govaḷkoṭ and other strong-holds in Chipḷūṇ were taken on May 17th. In June the Ratnāgirī Deshmukh's surrender of his forts, and the Dhuḷap's cession of Vijaydurg, completed the conquest[4].

During the final British war with the Peshvā (1817), Durgā Bāī threatened to invade the British territory, and tried her best to aid the Peshvā's cause. Even after the overthrow of the Peshvā, her raids into the British territory did not cease. The war against Sāvantvāḍī could be put off no longer, and on 4th February 1819, a British force, under Sir William Grant Keir, took the forts of Yeshvantgaḍ and Nivti[5]. At this time Durgā Bāī died, and the

---

[1] At the end of November, a detachment of Artillery and of the Marine Battalion (XXIst Regiment N. I.) under the orders of Captain William Morrison of the IX Regiment, was employed in reducing the fort of Suvarndurg which surrendered on the 4th December 1818. The Governor in Council, in General orders of the 20th December, was pleased to express his high sense of the conduct of the detachment upon the occasion. Though opposed by very superior numbers, the energy of this small force succeeded in surmounting every obstacle, escalading and taking in open day, with a party consisting only of fifty sepoys and thirty seamen led by Capt. Campbell of the IXth Regiment and Lieut. Dominicette of the Marines, the fort of Kandah (Kanakdurg) notwithstanding the heavy fire of the enemy. This gallant and successful enterprise having completely intimidated the enemy, the two other forts of Goa and Jañjirā, were abandoned during the night. Bom. Gaz. X, 339-340 c/f Service Record of H. M.'s XXIst Regiment N. I. (Marine Battalion)

[2] In January 1818, the force under Col. Prother, consisting of 380 Europeans, 800 Native Infantry and a battering train, took Karnala and within a month afterwards the forts of Avchitgaḍ, Songaḍ, Pālī which was bombarded for two hours and Bhorap, the last, a strong place, the fall of which hastened the surrender of the Pant Sachiv to the British authority. Nairne, 116 c/f Blue Book, 128, 177, 245. It was cannonaded for twenty-four hours before surrendering and an immense store of provisions found in it Ms. records, Nairne, 116.

[2] About the same time Mandangaḍ, where there were two forts with a triple stockade in the space between, was taken by escalade by small force from Suvarṇdurg under Colonel Kennedy and here a seaman was killed and nine or ten sepoys wounded—As. Journal, VI 320; Nairne, 116. c/f Blue Book, 208.

[3] Siddagaḍ, at first was unsuccessfully attacked, but with the help of a detachment of the 89th Regiment, which put into Mālvaṇ on account of adverse winds, a second attack was successful—As. Journal, VI, 320. Bhagvantgaḍ made some resistance.

[4] By force under Col.-Kennedy, Bairāmgad, Bhavāngad, Purangaḍ, Jaygaḍ Sātavli were taken—As. Journal, VI, 418; VII, 67; IX, 123 (Report on Vijaydurg).

[5] The force consisted of a wing of the 89th Regiment, 2¾ battalions of Native Infantry and three troops of Native Cavalry and Artillery, Nairne, 127.

The Savants.

regency was divided between the two surviving widows of Khem Sāvant III. The new regents gladly accepted the British terms. A treaty was concluded in which the British promised to protect Sāvantvāḍī, and the regency acknowledged British supremacy, agreed to abstain from political intercourse with other states, to deliver to the British Government persons guilty of offences in the British territory, to cede the whole line of sea coast from the Kārlī river to the Portuguese boundaries, and to receive the British troops into Sāvantvāḍī[1]. A British officer was also attached to the state as a political agent.

Chatursiṅg, the brother of the Rājā of Sātārā had for several years carried on predatory operations against the Peshvā, but he was taken prisoner in 1812 by Trimbakjī Deṅgaḷe. After Chatursiṅg's imprisonment, an imposter carried on the rebellion in his name and the Rāmoshīs under him were very active in taking forts and plundering the country and the districts of Suvarṇdurg and Añjanvel suffered most from their raids. In the beginning three or four bands of Peṇḍhāris descended into the Koṅkaṇ, intending to sweep the whole coast. One band completely sacked some large villages near Suvarṇdurg[2].

Bājīrāv, three or four years before his deposition had built a palace at Guhāgar, six miles south of Dābhoḷ, both as a hot weather retreat and to enable him to perform his religious rites on the sea-shore. He visited it for some years in succession, his route being down the Kumbhārlī ghāt and through Chipḷūṇ[3].

Koli Outrages. (1828-30, 1839 and 1841-49).

The Koḷis infested the country both above and below the Sahyādri in the Ṭhāṇā district but they were scattered over the whole area, from the borders of Cutch to the western ghāṭs[4]. Rāmjī Bhangria, a Koḷi police officer of the Government resigned his service as a protest against a Government order, stopping his levy of fifty rupees. There was also acute discontent among the Koḷis, as most of them were out of employment consequent upon the dismantling of the forts. Inspired by the successful revolt of the Rāmoshīs of Sātārā (1826-29), the Koḷis under Bhangria, raised the standard of revolt in 1828 and committed excesses.

---

[1] Aitchison, Treaties, IV, 436-448,

[1] Chaudhuri, 169.

[2] Nairne, 114; Khobarekar, Iṅgrajī Sattevirudha Mahārāshṭrāntīl Sashastra Uṭhāv, 27; 17.

[2] Asiatic Journal III, 626 (ref. The Bombay Courier, June 1817) IV, 315 (ref. Bombay Courier, March 1, 1817).

[2] The Bombay Government kept open communications, but a despatch from General Smith near Poona to the Commander-in-chief in Bombay had to be sent round by Bāṅkoṭ. Nairne c/f Blue Book, 119, 129.

[3] The greater part of the palace at Guhāgar was pulled down shortly after the British took the Koṅkaṇ, and the materials used for the Government buildings at Ratnāgiri—Waddington's MS. report, Nairne, 114.

[4] Towards the end of 1824, the Koḷis of Gujarāt raised a formidable insurrection burning and plundering the villages and carried their depredations near the vicinity of Baroda—Chaudhuri, Civil Disturbances in India, 167.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE SAVANTS.

Koli Outrages.

A large body of troops was employed against them. A detachment was posted in Konkan and another up the ghāṭs while mobile parties entered into the interior of the hills, surprised them in their hiding places and suppressed the rising.

But the warlike Koḷis were a terrible menace to the British rule. Early in 1839, bands of Koḷis plundered a large number of villages in the Sahyādri ranges. All the turbulent elements of the hills joined them. This time, they were led by three leaders, Bhāu Khare, Chimṇājī Jādhav and Nānā Darbāre who seemed to have harboured some political motives. The rising of the year 1839 was not merely the usual explosion of the hill tribes; the reduction in the Poona garrison lately made, led them to believe in the depletion of the British troops in that district, and consequently they made bold enough to work for the restoration of the Peshvā and the insurgents even declared themselves as Government in his name. Prompt action by British officers averted a crisis[1].

Again in 1844, the Koḷis under the leadership of an outlaw named Raghū Bhangria and another leader, Bāpū Bhangria commenced depredations on a wider scale[2]. As the situation was going out of control, a detachment of Native Infantry was quartered at Junnar in May 1845, and military out-posts were placed at Nānā and Mālsej passes to check the movement of the rebels up and down the Konkaṇ[3].

The new king Khem Sāvant, installed in 1822, was said to have been unable to check the turbulence of the lawless elements in his state, making demonstration of British forces necessary in 1830, 1832 and 1836. On each occasion, the British extended their power over the state by the expedient method of imposing upon the king, a minister, and a measure of reform. They also appropriated to their use the whole of the Vāḍī customs on the plea of covering the expense of British troops employed in the defence of the state.

---

[1] The rebels planned an attack on the Mahālkari's treasury at Ghoḍe, but they were intercepted by Rose, the Assistant Collector of Poona. The insurgents, 150 in number, besieged the place throughout the whole night. Meanwhile Rose attacked and dispersed the band and followed up his success by capture and arrest of the Koḷis, 54 of whom were tried and punished with varying terms of imprisonment and some were even hanged, including a Brāhman named Rāmchandra Gaṇesh Gore—Chaudhuri, 168.

[2] In Purandhar, similar lawless acts were committed by a large gang under the lead of the sons of Umājī, the noted leader of the Rāmoshi disturbances of 1825—Chaudhuri 169.

[3] In 1846, some of the rebels were rounded up, but Raghū Bhangria eluded the vigilance of the police. He had great influence over the minds of the people and lived on blackmail practised on Poona and Ṭhāṇā villages. On 2nd January 1848, he was caught by Lieut. Gell and a party of police in a very clever way, and subsequently hanged. The sons of Umājī, Tukyā and Mankala were finally captured in 1850, which completed the discomfiture of the Koḷi rulers—Chaudhuri, 169.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

THE SAVANTS.

Kolī Outrages.

Eventually the British Government forcibly deposed Khem Sāvant because of his inability to keep order, and assumed the reins of Government. The administration of the state was left in charge of a political superintendent who was supported by a local corps under the command of British officers. But disaffection was very acute and many of the turbulent nobles fled to Goa from where they planned for the recapture of the Vāḍī fort which was very nearly accomplished in 1839, as a result of a surprise attack made on the fort. The country was smouldering with sedition. This synchronised with the Kolhāpūr insurrection [1] of 1844. The Vāḍī malcontents and the garrison of the Manohar fort[2], broke out by committing many depredations including the looting of grain shops. A detachment under Major Benbow was paralysed. But Lieut. Col. Outram with four companies of the 11th regiment Native Infantry defeated the insurgents in the Ākrīpass. The position of the rebels was immensely strengthened when Phoṇḍ Sāvant, a leading noble of great power, and his eight sons joined the disaffected clements. Even Āṇṇa Sāheb, the heir-apparent, made common cause with the rebels by assuming a pompous royal style, and collecting revenues from villages. The insurgents consequently became so bold that they also opened negotiations with the officers of the tenth regiment. By 1845, the whole country was in utter disorder; there was no security even in places near British outposts[3].

The Government adopted very stringent measures and martial law was proclaimed, and three detachments were placed in three different parts of the district; but the insurrection could not be stamped out. It appears that Subhānā Nikam, a leader of consequence held Mālvaṇ in the west, Dājī Lakshmaṇ organised a strong resistance in the north, and Har Sāvant Diṅgaṇkar defended the Rām Pass Road in the east and while the movement was gaining strength, fresh leaders appeared on the scene. Gradually, however, the British army brought the situation under control. They engaged the rebels at different places successfully, particularly at Rāṅgṇa fort. Col. Outram took the fort of Manohar, scattered the rebels in different directions who sought safety in Portuguese territory. The common people on promise of pardon returned to their normal occupations. All Āṇṇā Sāheb's claims on the Vāḍī State were declared forfeited; his dominions were also annexed. In 1850, the Government decided to support him and his family with a fixed allowance The younger sons of Phoṇḍ Sāvant were allowed to return to Vāḍī and were pardoned for their contumacy, but his other grown up sons Nānā, Bābā and Hanumant remained under watch in Goa.

---

[1] Chaudhuri, 165–The Gadkari rising of Kolhapur (1844).

[2] Situated about 35 miles north-west of Belgaum.

[3] Chaudhuri, 170; Khobarekar, 32-36.

[4] One of the Sāvantvāḍī insurgent leaders attempted to raise the people of Mālvaṇ against the British Government–Nairne, 130.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
THE 1858 REBELLION.

In February 1858[1], during the mutiny, three sons of Phond Sāvant headed a rebellion in Sāvantvāḍī, starting from Goa where they had settled since 1845. They appeared in Canara at the head of a large body of insurgents. The insurrection was patently political in character, as the rebels manifested a disposition to overthrow the Government. In its extent it raged all along the forest frontier from Sāvantvāḍī to Canara. Police posts and customs houses were burnt to the ground, the insurgents garrisoned a strong position on Darshaniguḍḍā hill on the Canara border and carried on a kind of guerilla warfare. Captain Schneider of the Bombay Army drove them back to Goa. Subsequently Nānā Sāvant gave himself up to the Governor-General of Goa. Yet other leaders of the rebel confederacy namely Bastian and three brothers Rāghoba, Chintobā and Shanta Phaḍṇavīs persevered in hostilities and maintained themselves in the forests of Canara. In an action of 5th July 1859, Chintobā was killed, but the survivors confronted Lieuts. Giertzen and Drevar in a sharp action. After considerable exertion they were dispersed and finally crushed in December 1859[2].

Mary Sophia Marcia and Ellen Harriet, the wife and daughter of Arthur Malet of the Bombay Civil Service, with thirteen boatmen and attendants were drowned on the bar of the Sāvitrī river on the night of the 6th December 1853[3].

During the cyclone of the 15th January 1871, a small steamer, the *General Outram*, was wrecked off Ambolgaḍ, a few miles north of the Jaitāpūr light.

---

[1] The Konkaṇ was affected by the revolt of 1857, by a wing of the Native Infantry Regiment which mutinied at Kolhāpūr being at Ratnāgiri and the fears entertained that the mutineers would march down. A steamer was sent to take away the ladies and children from Ratnāgirī but no disturbance took place. The revolutionary, afterwards known as Nānā Sāheb, was the son of a poor Brāhmaṇ of Veṇgāon, a village in Karjat, and was adopted at the age of four by the Peshvā Bājīrāv, but once he went to live with his father in Northern India, Konkaṇ had no more to do with him. Nairne, 130. But the Ratnāgirī district "holds a race of men who in 18th century conquered nearly the whole of India, and who show no signs of degeneration, and no one can for a moment suppose that the progress of education and science will leave the country of the most intelligent and industrious of Indian races unknown and unimproved"—Natrne, 131.

[1] The Native infantry at Ratnāgirī had to hand over arms to the British officers—Khobarekar, 43-44.

[1] Rāmajī Shirsat the leader of the Kolhāpūr revolutionaries had escaped. The Superintendent at Kolhāpūr and Sāvantvāḍī declared prizes to trace him. The Sāvantvāḍī police finally shot him dead in the jungles of Pavashi village in the taluka Kuḍāḷ—Khobarekar, 44.

[2] Chaudhuri, 171.

[2] Appāsāheb of Jamkhiṇḍī too was kept as political prisoner in the Ratnāgiri fort till 7th January 1859. On the proclamation of Queen Victoria, on that day, he was released with no conditions—Khobarekar, 74. His servant Abā Devdhar, however, was never allowed to enter south Mahārāshtra—*Ibid.*

[3] Bom. Gaz. X (1880), 322.

Exclusive of the seven towns of Ratnāgirī, Mālvaṇ, Veṅgurlē, Masura, Chipḷūṇ, Harṇai and Rājāpūr, the district of Ratnāgirī was in 1878-79, provided with 103 schools or an average of one school for every twelve inhabited villages. Ratnāgirī and Veṇgurlē libraries had special buildings. Three Marāṭhī weekly lithographed newspapers were published by 1880 onwards. Two, the *Jaganmitra* 'Friend of the world' and *Satyashodhak* 'Truth Seeker', in the town of Ratnāgirī, and one, the *Mālvaṇ-Samāchār* and *Veṅgurlē Vritta* 'Mālvaṇ and Veṅgurlē News' in Veṅgurlē. The *Jaganmitra* was already an old paper of some standing. A small monthly Marāṭhī Magazine called *Vidyāmālā* "Garland of Knowledge" was also published by 1880 in the town of Ratnāgirī[1].

In 1819, when the British finally took over the complete administration of the district, the post of a resident stationed at Mālvaṇ and having jurisdiction over Mālvaṇ and the surrounding district was abolished and south Koṅkaṇ was formed into a separate collectorate with Bāṇkoṭ as its headquarters[2]. In 1820, the headquarters were moved to Ratnāgirī. In 1830, the three sub-divisions North of the Baṇkoṭ creek were transferred to the North Koṅkaṇ and Ratnāgirī was reduced to the rank of a sub-collectorate. Again in 1832[3] Ratnāgirī was raised to the rank of a Collectorate comprising five sub-divisions–Suvarṇdurg, comprising the present sub-divisions of Dāpoli and Kheḍ; Añjanvel, including the present Chipḷūṇ and Saṅgameshvar; Ratnāgirī, Vijaydurg including the present Rājāpūr and Devgaḍ; and Mālvaṇ. In 1868, the district was redistributed and formed into eight sub-divisions and four petty divisions. The sub-divisions were Dāpoli, Chipḷūṇ, Guhāgar, Saṅgameshvar, Ratnāgirī, Rājāpūr, Devgaḍ and Mālvaṇ; the petty divisions were Mandangaḍ, Kheḍ, Lāñjē and Veṅgurlē.

---

[1] Bom. Gaz. X (1880), pp. 290-291.

[2] On 20th November 1817, the British Resident at Mālvaṇ was informed of the Peshvā's defeat and the annexation of his dominions. On 16th December 1817, Mr. V. Hale, the Resident at Mālvaṇ, was directed to take possession of the Peshvā's share of the district. On 4th April 1818, the Resident informed the Bombay Government that the British were in possession of all the Peshvā's territory in the Koṅkaṇ–R. D. Choksey, Mālvaṇ Residency (1956), vii; 119, 124-28.

[2] At the time of the British conquest the district included nine sub-divisions, talukas, separated in most cases by a river or some other considerable natural boundary and each including from five to twelve petty divisions, mahāls, tappās, māmlās or tarafs. A census taken in the rains of 1820, showed a total population of 6,40,857 souls. This gave an average density of ninety-one to the square-mile, an average household of 4·875 souls and a proportion of 20 males to 18 females. Bom. Gaz. X, 219 Bom. Rev. Rec. 19 of 1824, 336-38, p. 105.

[3] Bāṇkoṭ, Mālvaṇ and Veṅgurlē were out of the question as being at the extremities of the District. Officers sent to report on the matter considered that Jaygaḍ, Vijaydurg and Ratnāgirī were the three most suitable spots, and eventually the choice fell on the last named. About 1830, however, the North and South Koṅkaṇ were joined into one Collectorate, but this arrangement did not last long–MS. records, Nairne, 128.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

1859-1960.

In 1873, the Kheḍ petty division was made a sub-division and Guhāgar, made a petty division under Chipḷūṇ. From the 1st August 1879, the petty division of Veṅgurlē was made a separate sub-division and at the same time, the petty division of Lāñjē was abolished and its villages distributed among Rājāpūr, Saṅgameshvar and Ratnāgirī.

After the disturbances in Sāvantvāḍī which came to an end in 1859, the district settled down to a period of peace and stable administration[1]. For the purpose of land administration extensive survey of the district was carried out, shortly after the establishment of British rule. The details of land administration are given in the chapter under that heading. The results of stable conditions prevailing after 1859, could be seen immediately thereafter. Education began to make headway in the district. In 1878-79, there were 119 Government schools, though there was only one high school in the district, along with five registered and 292 unregistered private vernacular schools. The progress of education was rapid with the result that the district had at the beginning of the 20th century a number of high schools spread over all parts of the district. Women's education also made some progress. The communications developed linking important towns of the district not only to the district headquarters, but also to the important cities like Bombay, Poona, Kolhāpūr and Belgaum[2]. With the progress in education an educated middle class began to play an important part in the development of the district. Following the lead given by Poona and Bombay private initiative was responsible for a considerable number of social and educational institutions. Newspapers and journals had already made their appearance, even before 1880 A.D. A number

[1] Small military detachments were kept for some years at Bāṇkoṭ, Mālvaṇ and Veṅgurlē and also at Harṇai. It was thought necessary, however, to make one regular military station, and Dāpoḷi was fixed upon. About 1840, the regular troops were removed, and the veteran battalion alone kept there, and after 1857, this also was abolished and the Southern Koṅkaṇ left without any military force whatover.

[2] The ruggedness of both Koṅkaṇs and the intersection of the country by large tidal rivers prevented the improvement of the greater part of it by road-making, so that it was only after the British occupation, that anything had been done to open out the inland parts of the district. But before the end of 1830, a great military road had been constructed from Panvel to Poona, and the Borghāṭ opened for wheeled vehicles, which the Poona Government had on political grounds refused to let the British Government repair as long as it was in their power. This new road was said by Sir John Malcolm "to break down the wall between the Koṅkaṇ and the Deccan". About the same time the road from Ṭhāṇā to Nāsik was made and the opening of the Taḷghāṭ, though it was not available for wheeled vehicles, has the greatest effect on trade, for upto that time Berar cotton used to reach Bombay by the circuitous route of Surat. The Kumbhārli Ghāṭ was also made at this time, although not then passable for carts, and the road across Mahabaḷeshvar from Sātārā to Mahāḍ was completed at the joint expenses of the Rājā of Sātārā and the Bombay Government. See also the report of J. J. Sparrow, Collector and T. B. Jervis, Executive Engineer, on 14th May 1822. Choksey, Ratnāgirī Collectorate, 57-61.

of prominent politicians, educationists and social reformers[1] such as Lokmānya Ṭiḷāk, Maharshi Karve, Dr. R. P. Parāñjpe hailed originally from this district. The social and political activities in the district began to share the common life of Mahārāshṭra, under the influence of these distinguished people. The Gaṇesh and Shivājī celebrations as well as the Svadeshī movement marked the beginning of the political activities in the district. The district had its share, until the achievement of independence in 1947, of the troubles and travails, strife and struggle, along with the rest of the country. The boundaries of the district underwent a change in 1947. The State of Sāvantvāḍī was merged with the district with the result that the district is now composed of 15 talukas and mahals. The district has entered upon a new period of development in all spheres.

[1] Shaṅkar Purshottam Aghārkar (studied Botany), Prof. Gaṅgādhar Bhikājī Acharekar (Musician); Jagannāth Raghunāth Ajgaonkar (writer); Vāman Dājī Oke (Poet); Krishṇarāv Arjun Keḷuskar (writer, social reformer); Bāḷ Gaṅgādhar Kher (politician); Gopāl Krishṇa Gokhale (politician), Parashrām Ballāl Godbole (poet); Parashurām Krishṅa Goḍe (Research scholar); Jagannāth Raghunāth Ghārpure (Jurist); Govind Sādāshiv Ghurye (research scholar and writer); Vishrām Rāvjī Ghole (surgeon); Bāḷshāstri Gangādhar Jāmbhekar (writer); Nārāyaṇ Vishṇu Joshī (research scholar); Rev. Nārāyaṇ Vāman Ṭiḷak (social reformer); Yeshvant Rāmkrishṇa Dāte (research scholar); Shāntārām Anant Desai (writer); Divāṇ-Bahādur Rāmchandrarāv Viṭhobā Dhāmṇaskar (Divāṇ); Shankar Pāṇḍuraṅg Paṇḍit (research scholar); Sitārām Nārāyan Paṇḍit (Barrister), Rājārām Shāstri Rāmkrishṇa Bhāgvat (social reformer); Sir Rāmkrishṇa Gopāl Bhāṇḍārkar (writer and research scholar); Colonel Jagannāthrāv Krishṇarāv Bhosale (C. in C. of Azād Hind Fame); Bāḷaji Prabhākar Moḍak (research scholar); Bhargav Viṭṭhal Varerkar (writer); General Nānāsāhib Gaṇapatrāv Shinde (writer); Govind Sakhārām Sardesai (research scholar); Shripād Dāmodar Sātavaḷekar (research scholar)—were born in the district.

PART III

CHAPTER III–THE PEOPLE AND THEIR CULTURE.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

Details of 1951 Census.

THE POPULATION OF RATNAGIRI DISTRICT (including the newly merged areas)[1] according to the census of 1951 is 1,711,964 (*m.* 769,635; *f.* 942,329). Spread over its area of 4982·8[2] square miles, it works out at 343·6 to the square mile. Of this, 1,553,858 (*m.* 694,113; *f.* 859,745) or 98·8 per cent. is spread over the rural area of 4860·7 square miles, and the remaining 158,106 (*m.* 75,522; *f.* 82,584) or 9 2 per cent. over the urban area of 122·1 square miles. The population density per square mile for rural and urban areas works out at 319·6 and 1,294·8 respectively.

The tract-wise distribution of this population over the district is as follows :—

Rural Tracts : Total population 1,553,858 (*m.* 694,113, *f.* 859,745).—Sawantwadi and Vengurla, 162,573 (*m.* 75,632; *f.* 86.941); Kankavli and Kudal, 191,652 (*m.* 87,110; *f.* 104,542); Deogad and Malvan, 197,881 (*m.* 87,333; *f.* 110,548); Rajapur and Lanje, 206,010 (*m.* 91,691; *f.* 114,319); Ratnagiri and Sangameshwar, 274,156 (*m.* 121,218; *f.* 152,938); Khed and Chiplun, 255,639 (*m.* 115,029; *f.* 140,610); Dapoli. Mandangad and Guhagar, 265,947 (*m.* 116,100; *f.* 149,847).

Urban Tract: Total population 158,106 (*m.* 75,522; *f.* 82,584).—Rajapur, Ratnagiri and Sangameshwar, 52,004 (*m.* 25,574; *f.* 26,430); Chiplun and Khed, 22,324 (*m.* 11,094; *f.* 11,230), Sawantwadi, Vengurla and Malvan, 83,778 (*m.* 38,854; *f.* 44,924).

Communities.

The community-wise enumeration of the population given by the 1951 census reveals that in the district, Hindus (including Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes) number 1,591,538 (*m.* 718,765; *f.* 872,773) or 87·1 per cent.; Jains 2,388 (*m.* 1,199; *f.* 1,189); Muslims, 103,351 (*m.* 43,083; *f.* 60,268) or 6·04 per cent.; and

[1] Ratnagiri district consisted, at the time of 1951 Census of the areas of the former Ratnagiri district of Bombay Province (except for two villages transferred to Kolaba district), with the addition of the former Sawantwadi State and two villages of the former Kolhapur State.

[2] This area figure is obtained from the District Inspector of Land Records, the same as furnished by Surveyor General of India is 5,020·9 square miles.

CHAPTER 3. — The people and their culture.

Christians 14,637 (*m.* 6,544; *f.* 8,093) or 0·8 per cent. There are 23 (*m.* 21; *f.* 2) Sikhs, 12 Buddhists, 14 (*m.* 11; *f.* 3) Zoroastrians, one Jew; and 43 (*m.* 21; *f.* 22) "Others" (non-Tribals). The census has also enumerated separately 128,849, (*m.* 59,257; *f.* 69,592) belonging to 'Scheduled Castes'; and 3,553 (*m.* 1,879; *f.* 1,674) belonging to 'Scheduled Tribes'; 2,274 (*m.* 1,110; *f.* 1,164) as 'Displaced Persons' from West Pakistan, and 122 (*m.* 96; *f.* 26) as non-Indian Nationals.

Sex-ratio.

From these details it appears that the percentage of males in the total population is 44·9, and of females 55·1; Hindu males (excluding Jains) 48·2 per cent., and Hindu females 51·8 per cent. of the Hindu population; Jain males 50·2 per cent., and Jain females 49·8 per cent. of the Jain population; Muslim males 41·6 and Muslim females 58·4 per cent. of the Muslim population; Christian males 44·7 per cent. and Christian females 55·3 per cent. of the Christian population. Similarly the male and female percentage ratio of the Scheduled Castes is 45·9 : 54·1, Scheduled Tribes 52·9 : 47·1 and of 'Displaced Persons' 48·8 : 51·2. The sex-ratio of the rural population of the district is 44·6 : 55·4 and that of the urban population is 47·7 : 52·3.

Livelihood pattern.

The population has been split up by the census into eight livelihood classes. Of these, the four agricultural classes which make up a total of 69·4 per cent., include: (1) cultivators of owned land 39·1 per cent.; (2) cultivators of unowned land 26·4 per cent.; (3) cultivating labourers 2·46 per cent.; and (4) non-cultivating owners of land 1·5 per cent. The four non-agricultural classes total 30·6 per cent. and include: (5) production other than cultivation 10·1 per cent.; (6) commerce 3·6 per cent.; (7) transport 2·8 per cent.; and (8) other services and miscellaneous sources 14 per cent.

Towns and villages.

According to the 1951 census, of the 1928 inhabited places in the district, thirteen are towns,[1] and the rest 1,515 are villages. Of the towns three, i.e. Malvan, Ratnagiri and Vengurla have each a population between 20,000 and 50,000, and two, i.e. Chiplun and Sawantwadi have each a population between 10,000 and 20,000. There are twenty places each with a population between 5,000 and 10,000. Of these, eight, i.e., Ajgaon, Deorukh, Khed, Kudal, Nate, Nerur, Rajapur and Sagwe are towns. Of the 1,515 villages, 445 have less than 500 people, 480 between 500 and 1,000, 427 between 1,000 and 2,000, 151 between 2,000 and 5,000 and 12 between 5,000 and 10,000.

None of the villages are walled or fenced. The people in South Konkan live in small tile-roofed houses, spread out in two or more hamlets which comprise the village. The hamlets or *vāḍās* are as a rule, situated according to availability of land for cultivation. Many of the villages are thus divided up into four or five hamlets, though

[1] In general a town means a municipal area, cantonment area or a place which has a population of 5,000 or more persons and exhibits urban characteristics.

there are a few instances of exceptionally big villages containing as many as 30 hamlets. Coastal villages are densely shaded by belts of cocoanut gardens, and the road between the long lines of houses are usually paved with cut laterite stones. These raised causeways are called *pākhāḍis*. The village sites of the inland parts are well, though less densely shaded with mango, jack and tamarind trees. The houses, mostly built of mud-walls and some of dressed laterite stone, are usually detached from one another each house having a small compound or court-yard of its own containing a few fruit and flower trees and some open space. During the fair weather, a part of the open space is often covered by a small pandal erected in front of the house. A noticeable feature found in the south except in Kankavli Mahal and the extreme south of Sawantwadi is that a number of houses have in their compounds a few cocoanut trees and in coastal villages almost every house except in the bazar areas is built in a cocoanut garden.

Houses.

The types of houses built in the district vary with the locality and the stage of development and culture of the community to which the inhabitant belongs. The Kuṇbī generally lives in a small house with mud and gravel walls and a thatched roof held up by wooden posts let in at the corners and the gables. The rafters are generally bamboos, and the thatch of bundles of rice straw and coarse grass. In the south, the rafters may be of cocoanut palm and the roofing of cocoanut leaves plaited or loose. The inside is generally divided into two rooms. a larger where the family cooks and lives in the day time, and smaller the sleeping and store room. At the gable end is usually a lean-to shed in which cattle and field tools are kept, and grass and wood stored. A Marāṭhā house is generally better and much neater than a Kuṇbī's, with sun-dried brick walls, a tiled roof, a front verandah and in the fair season an outer booth with a flat roof of plaited palm leaves, the floor every-day carefully smoothed and cowdunged. Most Brāhmans, Bhanḍārīs and Musalmans, live in well-built houses raised on stone plinths. The walls are masonry or burnt brick work and roofs are tiled. The wood work in the roof is generally substantial and well built and the door and window frames neatly put together. Wooden shutters are generally used, though glazed windows are sometimes seen in Ratnagiri, Malvan, Vengurla and other towns. The village Mahār usually lives in a small shapeless roughly-built thatched mud hut. But pensioners and other high class Mahārs generally, like the Marāṭhās, build a better style house.

Except in large towns, houses are very seldom built as a speculation. Well-to-do traders, retired Government servants and pleaders build for their own use substantial and comfortable dwellings but seldom let them to tenants. All large trading towns and villages have a good number of substantial stone tile-roofed buildings housing nearly five per cent. of the population. The better sort of house, square built, with an open central or front courtyard, has, round the courtyard, an eight feet deep verandah-like dais or platform raised

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

about three feet from the ground; its walls covered with cement or *chunam* plaster, oil painted, and its cornices hung with frames of bright coloured lithoprint pictures of gods, saints and mythological subjects. From this verandah, the common family resort, doors lead into back rooms, mostly dark and windowless or out into a cattle yard with offices in the rear. Shopkeepers live in dark rooms behind their stalls, with a backyard for cattle, and offices in the rear, entered through a back door. The hovels of the poor, a few feet square with one doorway, generally the sole opening for light or smoke, are divided by bamboo or *paḷas* leaf partitions into three or four small rooms into which a family of eight or ten are often crowded. The houses of the richer classes, one, two or three stories high, have walls of laterite or black stone, bricks, either with cement or *chunam* plaster or pointing and tiled roofs. According to the means and size of the owner's family, they contain from eight to fifteen rooms. In front there is a porch *oṭā*, and settle, and a verandah behind. Inside are central room *mājghar*, god-room, store-room, kitchen, bed-rooms, and several other rooms according to the necessity of the family. These houses have some open space in the rear containing a well, a privy and a cattle-house or an out-house.

Dress.

THE DRESS ENSEMBLE OF HINDUS OF RATNAGIRI District which varies to some extent according to caste and creed does not differ much from the one current in other Marathi speaking districts. A thing to be noticed in the district is that because of its moist and warm climate all the year round the people in general are found sparing in the use of clothes.

Child dress.

The swaddling clothes, *bāḷoti*, for the child consist of a triangular piece of cloth which can be tied round the child's waist so as to cover the buttocks and the front. The traditional wear for the baby, whether a boy or a girl are the *toparē*, *kuñcī* and *angḍē* or *zabalē*. For a *ṭoparē* two doubled square pieces of cloth are sewn together only on two sides, and to the lower ends of the unsewn sides are fastened two tapes. When the two pieces of the unsewn sides are opened they form a hollow into which the baby's head is put and the tapes are tied together under its chin. When the unsewn sides of the *ṭoparē* are extended by sewing to it a *khaṇa* (bodice cloth) it forms a *kuñcī* and serves the purpose both of a cap and a frock. *Aṅgaḍē* is a general term indicating a sewn garment for the upper body in which could be included *zabalē* (frock), *banḍī* or *peṭī* (jacket) worn by the child. When the baby grows two or three years old, a round or folded cap for the head, *sadarā*, *pairaṇ* (shirt) for the upper part, and *caḍḍi*, *tumān* or *coḷṇā* or short pants for the lower part are sewn for the use of boys, and *parkara* (petticoat), *caḍḍi* (pant), *polkā* (bodice) and *jhagā* (frock) for the use of girls. Girls of eight or ten if they do not persist in the use of frocks, *parkar* (petticoat) and *polkā* or *coḷī* (bodice), may take to the wear of *sāḍī* (small robe) and *coḷī* (bodice).

Male Dress.

The ordinary dress of upper class Hindus is, for the men indoors, a *dhotar* (waistcloth) and a *sadarā* or *pairaṇ* (shirt); outdoors a *dhotar* (waistcloth), a coat, a cap or a *rumāla* (head-scarf) and

Male Dress.

vahāṇās (sandals). He may also wear a *uparaṇē* (shouldercloth). On important occasions he wears, in addition to his ordinary out-of-door clothes a *rumāla* with a *jari* border and made of silk, a regular shirt with cuffs and collar and instead of a short coat a long coat known as the *phārsī* fashion coat. The *Brāhman* turban or *pagaḍī* of Mahārashtra is rarely seen in the district and the freshly folded turban or *rumāla* is found in the wear of elderly persons. The *uparaṇē* (shouldercloth) is used only by the orthodox few. Generally the male footwear is *vahāṇās* (sandals) in rural areas and chappals and half-shoes in urban areas. The square-toed red shoes (*joḍā*) of Poona are practically extinct on Ratnagiri side. Now-a-days many persons wear out of doors a 'Nehru shirt' with or without *kabjā* (waistcoat) and a 'Gandhi cap'.

The wardrobe of a well-to-do young man may consist of all the items of the western dress ensemble including the 'bush shirt' and 'bush coat' of recent origin. His outdoor dress varies between three types: (1) A *lenghā* (loose trousers or slacks) and a long shirt of the 'Nehru' type, or a pair of short pants and a shirt, the two flaps of the shirt being allowed to hang loose on the shorts or being tucked inside them. (2) A pair of trousers in combination with a shirt or a half-shirt, a bush shirt or a bush-coat. The shirt is tucked underneath the trousers and its sleeves may be rolled up in band above the elbow. (3) A full western suit including trousers, shirt, perhaps a waist-coat and a necktie. For ceremonial occasions he may prefer to dress after Indian style in a *śerawānī* or *acakan* and a *survār*. Among the urbanite young men the use of *dhotar* is getting rare which is in some evidence among the middle-aged.

Among middle class Hindus, such as husbandmen and craftsmen the man wears indoors a loincloth or shorts, a waistcloth and sometimes a waistcoat; out-of-doors he wears a waistcloth, a *sadarā*, a waist-coat or sleeveless smock *kāncolā*, with or without head scarf *rumāl,* and in cold or wet weather, a blanket *kāmbḷī*. On great occasions, instead of his smock he wears a coat and other items of dress worn by the rich but of cheaper quality. Among the poorest classes, field and town labourers, men generally wear indoors a loin-cloth, a *caḍḍī* and blanket; out-doors a short waistcloth *pañcā*, and blanket or head scarf, and on festive occasions a waistcloth, a *sadarā* or a jacket, and a fresh head scarf.

The *dhotar* (about 50 inches wide and four or four and a half yards long) in the wear of Brāhmans and allied classes is generally worn in such a way that the left side portion is drawn up and tucked behind in the wrap, and the right side remainder is folded breadth-wise into a few pleats and tucked at the navel. It is customary for them to fold the hind portion of the *dhotar* in pleats about three inches broad and tuck them behind tightly and flatly in a bunch. The front pleats are carefully smoothed and a few of them are taken up and tucked over the already tucked up bunch at the navel. For making the *dhotar* a fit wear for work the method followed is known

CHAPTER 3.

—

The people and their culture.

as *kācyā* wherein the lower of the front pleats, after their upper ends are tucked in at the navel, are drawn up between the legs behind and tucked in at the back-centre.

The peasants and lower class people wear a shorter *dhotī* (known as *pañcā*) and have but few puckers in front and behind, their ends hanging and fluttering loose. Even when the *dhotī* is of the regular size, they have the back-tuck without regular pleats, and before fixing it they roll down a waist-band over the *dhotī*; and especially while working, they take up the portion of the *dhotar* on the left side by the lower end and within the fold gather the surplus right side pleats or portion and tuck the end in the wrap.

Female Dress.

The chief items of a woman's dressware in the district are the *sārī* (robe) and the short sleeved *coḷī* (bodice). The *sārī* generally worn by elderly ladies is eight to nine yards in length and forty-five to fifty-two inches in width, and is known as *lugaḍē* or *saḍī* in Marāṭhī. *Sāris* of five to six yards are usually worn by girls or modern fashionable ladies who necessarily wear a foundation of a *parakara* (petticoat) and an underwear (*caḍḍī*). Both types have two lengthwise borders *kānṭh* or *kinār*, also two breadthwise borders *padara* at the two ends, of which one is more decorated than the other.

The mode of wearing the *lugaḍē* favoured by all the Hindu classes in the district is with the hind pleats tucked into the waist at the back-centre. This mode of wearing the *sāḍī* is known as *sakaccha nesaṇa* as opposed to *golanesaṇa* (round mode of wear) which is getting popular with girls and fashionable ladies wearing *sāris* five to six yards in length. It is worth noting that "in the Koṅkaṇ the dancing girls, who in ordinary daily life may and do wear the hind pleats without let or hindrance, do not and are not allowed to wear them when they are engaged for giving public dancing and singing performances."[1]

The *coḷī* (bodice) characteristic of the region covers only about half the length of the back and is tied in front just beneath the breasts in the middle by a knot made with the edges of the two panels. The fashionable urbanites have to some extent discarded this old fashioned attire and have taken to the use of brassiers, blouses, polkas and jumpers. In their case a reversion to new types of *coḷis* in the form of blouses with low cut necks and close-fitting sleeves up to the elbow revealing the region about the lower ribs for a space of one to three inches is noticed now-a-days.

Of the poorer classes both men and women wear a thickly folded blanket drawn over the head and falling to about the waist. When at work in fields, husbandmen hang on their heads *iralē*, a peaked and rounded teak or palm leaf shield. A peculiar custom in Malvan,

1. *Indian Costumes*, G. S. Ghurye, P. 193.

Vengurla and Sawantwadi is that all Hindu and native Christian women who can afford it wear chaplets or wreaths of red and yellow flowers.[1]

ORNAMENTS.

Ornaments are almost a necessity to all classes and a considerable amount of capital is thus unproductively locked up either in the owner's or the pawnbroker's hands. Ornaments differ in type as used by men and women and by boys and girls. They also differ according to community and economic status of the wearer. They are worn in the hand, in the ears, in the nose, on the neck, across the shoulders, on the arms, on the wrists, on the fingers, round the waist, on the legs and on the toes. A person with a complete set of ornaments may not wear them all at a time.

Male Ornaments

It is no more a fashion now for men to wear ornaments extensively. Of those that are still found in use are, among the rich, gold earrings, *bhikbāḷis*, finger rings, *aṅgaṭhis*, and rarely necklaces, *kanthī* and *goph*; middle class men wear gold earrings, *kuḍis*, or a *bhikbāḷi* on the upper part of the right ear, a silver necklace, *goph*, a *kaḍē* on the wrist or a *danḍakaḍē* on the upper arm, and a silver waist-belt, *karagoṭā*.. A boy's ornaments in a rich family are gold or silver wristlets. *bindlyā*, *kaḍās* and *toḍās*, a waist chain *sakhaḷī*, and silver anklets, *vaḷās* or *jhanjris*; and in middle class and poor families, *muḍis*, *gophs* and *kaḍās*. A young man of modern fashions sometimes takes a fancy to wear round his neck a thin gold chain with a central locket. Buttons, links, studs, collar-pins, tie-pins, wrist watches made of precious metals and set with precious stones are found in the wear of rich persons.

Female Ornaments.

Among women the rich wear, for the head, *muda*, *rākhaḍı*, *kegada*, *phūl*. *sevaticē phūl*, and *candrakora*; for the neck *ṭhuśi*, *gaḷasari*, *sari*, *putalyachi māḷa*, and *ṭikā*;. for the ears *bugadī*, *karāba*, *kuḍi*, *kāpa*, and *ghuma*; for the nose, *natha*, *phuli*, and *moti*; for the upper arm, *vāki* and *bajuband*; for the wrist, *bāṅgaḍis*, *goṭu*, and *pāṭali*; and for the ankles, *toḍās*. A middle class woman wears almost all the ornaments worn by the rich, and a poor woman wears only a gold or silver-gilt nose ring, *natha* or *motī*, a necklace of gold and glass beads strung on silk cord, *gaḷasari*, round silver or lead lac *bāngḍis*, and a pair of gold or gilt earrings, *bugaḍi*. Other ornaments are added as funds admit, such as silver toe rings, *joḍvi*, silver armlets, *vāki*, strings of gold coins, *putaḷyāci māḷa*, and gold hair ornament, *ketka*.

A girl's ornaments in a rich family are, for the head, *muda*, *rākhaḍi*, *candrakora*, *kegada*, *veṇi*, and *kalepatti*; for the nose, *camaki* or *phūli*; for the ears, *bugaḍi*, *kuḍē*, and ear-rings; for the neck, *gaḷasari*, *ṭikā*, *putḷyāca hāra*, and *javāci māḷa*; and for the ankles *toḍās*, *vaḷās*, and *jhanjris*.

---

[1] The custom is said to have been brought from Goa. The flowers used are: *surangi* (Calysaccion longifolium), *gend* or *butāno* (Amaranthus globosus), *kevaḍā* (Pandanus odoratissimus), *mandār* (Calatropis gigantia); *sevanti* (Chrysanthemum indicum), and *āboli* (Ruellia infundibuliformia). They are grown in every village and numbers of flower strings are daily brought to market.

Fashions in female ornaments, particularly of the rich have undergone considerable change during the last fifty years, the general tendency being towards the wear of ornaments lighter, fewer and more artistically shaped than the old ones. Head ornaments are generally getting out of fashion; brooches and *phulē* of fancy shapes are seen in the wear of young girls. As ear ornaments *coukaḍā* and *kūḍi*, preferably of pearls and precious stones are generally worn by elderly women and earrings of various types are used by girls. *Mangaḷa-sūtras* of various types, the black beads being stringed together in different patterns of gold chain work, are now-a-days used as an ornament by married women. Besides, necklaces known as *candrahāra*, *capalāhara*, *bakuḷhāra*, *puspahāra*, *mohanmāḷa*, *ekadāṇi*, *kolhāpuri sāja*, all made of gold, have come in vogue replacing the old *ṭhuśis*, *saris*, *vajraṭikās*, and *putaḷyāci māḷa*, Similarly the old heavy wrist ornament like *goṭh* and *paṭlyā* have been replaced by bangles and bracelets of various delicate patterns.

FOOD.

THE DIETARY AND FOOD HABITS OF THE PEOPLE OF RATNAGIRI have their regional peculiarities pertaining to Konkan distinguishing them from the general pattern of Maharashtra.

Among the well-to-do rice is the staple food suplemented now-a-days because of food rationing with a quantity of wheat. Meals are taken at noon and after sunset. With the rice is taken some *ghee* (clarified butter), a curry or *āmṭī* of split pulse, onions, spices and a tamarind or *kokam* dressing, and vegetables fried in sweet oil, spiced and preferably added with some fresh cocoanut scraping. Buttermilk (*tāka*) is so indispensable with Brahmans that almost every house, except the poorest, keeps a cow or buffalo. *Caṭaṇis*, *koshimbirs*, *loṇacē*, *pāpaḍ*, and *sāṇḍage* are the usual adjuncts to a meal among the well-to-do.

The lower classes eat *nācaṇi* instead of rice, and the poorest *vari* and *harik*, an unwholesome grain unless soaked in hot water, and *uḍid*, a pulse cheaper than gram or *tur*. The morning beverage of weak rice-water *pej*, still holds its pride of place in the people's daily diet. Every day before going out *Seṇavis* (Gauḍ Sarasvat Brahmins) and all classes, except strict Brahmins, take a draught of *pej*. and with it a small quantity of fresh cocoanut kernel, a *pāpaḍ* or some vegetable. The object of the early draught of rice-water is said to be to guard against the heat of the sun and to keep off attacks of biliousness. The midday meal is then taken at about 1 p.m. Brahmans, who cannot break their fast before washing, take their morning meal at a much earlier hour than is usual elsewhere. However, the morning tea with some snacks has nowadays become current with all except the poor. The cultivators usually start their day with a morning breakfast consisting of *nācaṇi* bread with roasted dried fish followed by *pej*, and have two full meals both consisting of rice and *dāḷ* or fish curry, and occasionally some vegetable.

The culinary art of the people as expressed in their daily food, feast menus and holiday dishes, has its own peculiarities, every caste-group claiming some distinguishing features.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

Rice being the staple food of the people, the cereal predominates in many of their food items. It is used in two forms : *ukḍā* (par-boiled) made of paddy halfboiled before it is pounded to remove chaff ; and *surai* made without boiling the paddy. In the preparation of boiled rice, generally two processes are followed : one known as *beṭhā bhāt* is prepared by boiling the rice (cleaned and washed) in about twice the quantity of water till it swells soft ; for the other kind known as *velanā bhāt* the rice is boiled in an excess quantity of water and then strained dry when the grain gets sufficiently soft. The strained rice-water may be salted to taste and drunk as *velaṇi pej*. The rice is eaten with different kinds of curries or *āmṭis* of which a peculiar kind made either of vegetables and pulses or fish is known as *sāmbārē*. *Āmṭī* is generally prepared of *tur* split pulse and is spiced with *goḍā masāla* and a *phoḍani* of *jire* (cumin seed) and asafœtida ; *gur* and tamarind are its necessary adjuncts. *Sāmbārē* has a thicker consistency than that of *āmṭī* and is prepared from a variety of pulses and ingredients such as hot spices, onion, scraped cocoanut all fried in oil and pasted on a curry-stone are its special adjuncts.

Several special dishes are prepared chiefly from rice-flour. *Āyate, kāyaloḷyā, ghāvan,* and *poḷe* are pan-cakes, each prepared according to its kind, after mixing the flour in water, butter-milk or milk and adding to it a little salt and *gur*, scrapped cocoa-kernel, chopped green chillies, coriander leaves, onion, etc., and the mixture poured and spread over heated oil or *ghee* in a pan and fried. *Āmboḷī* is a similar pan-cake thicker in kind and prepared from rice and *uḍid*-flour mixed together in water and fermented overnight. Of the same mixture are prepared *iḍalīs* by steaming them in small dishes in a closed vessel. *Vaḍe, ghārge,* and *unḍe* are cakes made from dough of rice and *udid*-pulse flour and fried in deep oil. *Vaḍes* are flat and round like *puris* ; *ghārge* are similar to *vaḍe* but the dough is sweetened with *gur* and *pumpkin,* cucumber, etc. boiled soft ; *unḍes* are globular in size. *Pātoḷyā* : about an ounce of kneaded rice-flour dough is spread on a green turmeric leaf to a thickness of a wafer-biscuit ; an ounce of scrapped cocoa-kernel sweetened with molasses is laid on the dough, the leaf is folded double, and such *pātoḷyās* are steamed in a number. *Sevayā* (vermicelli), kneaded and boiled rice-flour pressed through a metal plate pierced with small holes, are eaten with milk of green cocoa-kernel mixed with *gur*, *Sāndaṇs* are made of rice-flour (granules), cocoanut milk and juice of ripe mangoes or jack-fruit ; they are cooked in steam like pudding. *Caṇaḍīs* are fried wheat-flour wafers overlaid with thin layer of sugar ; *neoris* are bow-shaped wheat-flour cakes stuffed with a mixture of scrapped cocoa-kernel, pieces of cashew-nut, sesame, etc. and sugar or molasses. The popular holiday dish for many is *khīr*, that is rice-porridge mixed with molasses and cocoanut milk, served with *vaḍe*.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

TABLE I.

AREA, HOUSES AND POPULATION FROM 1901 TO 1951.

District Ratnagiri.

Census Years.	Area in Square Miles.	Towns.	Villages.	Occupied Houses.		Population.			
						Urban.		Rural.	
				Urban.	Rural.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1901 ..	3,998	7	1,301	12,730	2,04,782	38,160	38,754	5,09,865	5,81,648
1911 ..	3,989	5	1,306	10,223	2,20,216	35,599	37,678	5,17,783	6,12,578
1921 ..	3,989	5	1,300	14,548	2,28,040	37,362	30,885	4,87,079	5,89,018
1931 ..	3,989	5	1,306	14,266	2,44,542	44,577	46,274	5,64,432	6,46,944
1941 ..	4,069	6	1,306	13,773	2,75,289	35,172	35,708	5,96,682	7,05,904
1951* ..	5,021	13	1,515	20,105	2,81,261	75,522	82,584	6,04,113	8,50,745

*Figures for 1951 only include those for the merged area of the former Sawantwadi State.

TABLE II.

CIVIL CONDITION BY AGE PERIODS (ALL COMMUNITIES)

District Ratnagiri.

1911.

Age Periods	Total Population		Unmarried.		Married		Widowed	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0-5	82,545	87,434	82,024	86,409	512	971	9	54
5-10 ..	82,771	82,569	81,668	75,871	1,057	6,447	46	251
10-15 ..	71,121	65,419	67,353	28,780	3,704	35,527	64	1,112
15-20 ..	46,289	52,301	34,553	2,518	11,596	47,064	140	2,719
20-40 ..	1,37,911	2,00,754	19,122	2,585	1,15,700	1,63,596	3,089	34,[illegible]
40-60 ..	97,547	1,16,993	2,359	844	84,978	54,857	10,210	61,292
60 and over.	35,198	44,786	650	292	25,500	5,469	9,048	39,025
Total ..	5,55,862	6,50,256	2,87,729	1,97,249	2,48,047	3,15,981	22,606	1,39,078

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

TABLE II.—*contd.*

1931.

Age Periods. 1	Total Population. Male. 2	Total Population. Female. 3	Unmarried. Male. 4	Unmarried. Female. 5	Married. Male. 6	Married. Female 7	Widowed. Male. 8	Widowed. Female. 9
0-1 ..	17,117	17,071	17,064	17,015	52	54	1	2
1-5 ..	61,018	85,062	80,600	84,279	401	731	17	52
5-10 ..	94,481	87,728	92,981	76,208	1,458	11,236	42	284
10-15 ..	81,606	74,470	77,881	49,470	3,559	24,351	66	643
15-20 ..	47,188	56,800	33,543	6,105	13,406	48,323	179	2,372
20-30 ..	81,725	1,21,297	24,244	2,682	56,205	1,06,364	1,186	12,251
30-40 ..	73,206	98,565	2,700	1,537	67,229	72,742	3,068	24,286
40-50 ..	59,203	60,282	1,005	378	52,826	36,536	5,292	32,368
50-60 ..	42,348	46,624	578	199	35,031	14,009	6,739	32,416
60 and over.	31,367	36,319	825	156	22,111	4,492	3,601	31,671
Total ..	609,309	6 93,218	3,31,170	2,38,035	2,52,958	3,18,838	25,181	1,36,345

TABLE II—contd.

1951 (Sample population).

Age Periods 1	Total Population. Male. 2	Total Population. Female. 3	Unmarried. Male. 4	Unmarried. Female. 5	Married. Male. 6	Married. Female. 7	Widowed. Male. 8	Widowed. Female. 9
0-1 ..	2,464	2,417	..	..	..	..	..	..
1-4 ..	8,604	8,558	..	..	..	..	..	..
5-14 ..	23,807	22,649	23,753	21,968	46	665	8	10
15-24 ..	11,576	15,824	9,718	3,920	2,017	11,502	21	202
25-34 ..	8,208	14,311	1,322	389	6,709	12,478	109	1,440
35-44 ..	7,888	11,823	870	120	6,610	8,362	408	2,889
45-54 ..	6,673	8,805	128	67	5,782	4,721	763	4,017
55-64 ..	5,291	5,800	73	85	4,119	1,599	1,089	41,22
65-74 ..	2,121	2,727	56	44	1,444	436	621	2,247
75 and over.	840	1,116	10	3	483	101	347	952
Total ..	77,416	98,598	46,717	37,645	27,298	39,916	3,401	16,037

TABLE III.

Language (Mother-tongue).

District Ratnagiri.

Languages.	1951		1931		1911	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Marathi .. .	7,36,186	8,99,816	5,81,472	6,59,861	5,40,158	6,86,284
Kannada	325	228	320	202	246	169
Gujarati	637	327	2,688	1,891	396	182
Urdu	30,309	40,101	..	..	..	..
Hindi	210	102	..	..	..	..
Konkani .. .	1,120	1,297	3,114	4,930	..	..
Telugu	370	295	229	173	..	..
Sindhi	20	4	28	4	134	23
Rajasthani	125	72	101	33	69	20
Tamil	28	5	50	5	..	..
Punjabi	1	..	19	16	1	1
Kachchhi	161	59	118	27	..	..
English	11	5	21	16	21	24
Malayalam	60	3	25	3	..	..
Bengali	3	1	..	..	..	..
Naipali	5	..	..	..	..	..
Portuguese	25	11	..	..	15	5
Arabic	2	1	104	185	..	..
Chinese	12	..	..	..	..	..
Spanish	1	..	..	..	..	..
Greek	10	..	..	..	..	..
Swedish	..	2	..	..	..	..
African	4	..	..	..	..	..
Pashto	..	..	6	..	..	..
Lahnda	..	..	2	..	..	..
Western Hindi	..	..	22,234	27,336	94	250
Ahirani or Khandeshi ..	..	..	..	2	..	..
Tulu .. .	..	..	8	9	..	..
Persian	..	..	82	29	2	1
Bhil Dialects	..	..	..	..	1	..
Hindustani	..	..	..	..	12,118	13,241
Other Indian Languages ..	..	..	..	..	128	104
Other Asiatic Languages ..	..	..	..	..	3	1
Other European Languages ..	..	..	..	..	1	..

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

TABLE IV.

POPULATION BY RELIGION FROM 1881 TO 1951.

District Ratnagiri.

Religion.	1881		1891		1901		1911		1921		1931		1941		1951	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Hindus	4,38,678	4,82,868	4,75,449	5,44,404	5,07,418	5,70,227	5,13,353	5,97,241	4,88,986	5,78,134	5,67,009	6,39,485	5,86,981	6,83,958	7,18,765	8,72,773
Muhammedans.	31,890	39,251	35,074	44,649	36,315	46,510	36,165	49,137	34,410	46,581	37,779	48,967	39,779	52,082	43,068	60,268
Christians	1,657	1,618	2,054	2,152	2,556	2,425	2,827	4,887	3,089	3,342	3,408	3,713	3,506	4,115	6,544	8,093
Jains	903	796	1,018	1,036	1,207	1,127	975	938	819	821	1,079	1,045	860	757	600	616
Parsees	12	4	10	5	20	9	33	13	22	14	19	7	..	..	11	
Jews	1	..	..	..	2	..	1	4	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Buddhists	2	..	11	24	7	10	11	15	1	..	3	..	..	..	4	2
Animistic	..	..	.	..	..	..	16	21	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sikhs	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	11	..	4	..	6	3
Others	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	13	11	..	..	28	18	..	..
Tribals*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	17	170	155	..	..

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

TABLE V.

POPULATION BY TALUKA FROM 1901 TO 1951.

DISTRICT RATNAGIRI

Name of Taluka or Peta.	1901.		1911.		1921.		1931.		1941.		1951.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Chiplun ..	55,350	63,667	56,036	67,069	53,745	63,587	62,523	71,023	65,351	76,454	62,208	83,894
Dapoli ..	51,401	58,182	52,523	61,803	47,690	51,649	54,879	68,427	56,164	67,674	57,000	72,105
Deogad ..	68,476	75,274	69,205	79,292	30,773	39,547	74,970	84,416	81,814	92,995	43,599	54,319
Guhagar ..	32,472	39,257	32,969	41,161	66,987	78,019	36,512	44,458	37,808	48,553	37,301	50,585
Kankavli ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	46,438	56,663
Khed ..	44,881	50,713	47,159	54,370	41,759	51,735	52,031	59,177	53,672	62,300	56,915	67,946
Kudal ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	46,669	54,876
Lanje .	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	35,121	42,800
Malvan ..	50,886	51,058	51,370	59,887	48,110	58,012	55,978	63,637	51,463	66,947	57,467	72,847
Mandangad ..	20,755	24,230	20,806	24,614	18,904	22,853	21,643	24,826	22,024	26,661	27,799	27,157
Rajapur ..	72,467	81,341	71,547	83,680	69,413	82,574	79,404	91,089	83,446	96,828	65,005	81,536
Ratnagiri ..	68,322	78,800	68,031	81,836	64,075	73,823	74,482	86,179	75,180	89,091	71,680	87,697
Sangameshwar .	60,350	69,962	61,753	73,184	59,310	71,154	72,413	80,875	73,067	85,321	66,677	81,654
Sawantwadi ..	....	....	1,03,001*	1,14,239*	97,006*	1,09,434*	1,10,462*	1,19,627*	N.A.	N.A.	58,452	65,830
Vengurla ..	22,758	22,758	22,083	23,360	23,475	24,048	24,544	26,111	25,865	28,738	36,304	42,901

* The total is for Sawantwadi State before the merger.

TABLE VI.

Urban Area, Houses and Inmates 1951.

District Ratnagiri.

Serial No.	Name of village or town ward.	Area of village or town in Square miles.	Number of houses.	Number of households.	Total number of persons enumerated (including inmates of institutions and houseless persons).			Number of inmates of institutions and houseless persons.	
					Persons.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Chiplun	10·8	2,905	3,214	15,847	7,784	8,063	362	35
2	Khed	2·9	1,101	1,168	6,477	3,310	3,167	116	89
3	Kudal	4·4	925	1,018	5,852	2,792	3,060	29	13
4	Nerur	15·2	1,084	1,298	7,142	3,205	3,937	21	8
5	Malvan	10·0	5,933	6,925	29,851	13,733	16,118	20	25
	Municipal area.	....	2,470	4,511	18,848	8,699	10,149	20	25
	Non-Municipal area	....	2,403	2,414	11,003	5,034	5,969	....	....
6	Nate	8·2	779	1,187	5,668	2,461	3,207	....	....
7	Rajapur	6·8	1,083	1,383	8,023	3,85	4,167	18	24
8	Sagave	11·7	764	623	4,761	2,118	2,643	....	...
9	Ratnagiri	4·1	3,054	5,700	27,082	13,970	13,112	573	110
10	Deorukh	7·5	974	1,178	6,470	3,169	3,301	64	....
11	Ajgaon	12·2	1,073	1,165	6,704	2,661	3,043	....	....
12	Sawantwadi	0·7	2,041	2,584	12,451	5,916	6,535	52	....
13	Vengurla	27·0	4,409	4,824	22,778	10,547	12,231	102	3
	Municipal area	....	2,573	2,788	12,717	5,944	6,773	102	3
	Ansur	..	411	444	1,951	877	1,074	....	....
	Ubhadanda	....	1,425	1,592	8,110	3,726	4,384	....	....
		122·1	26,105	32,638	1,58,106	75,522	82,584	1,357	307

TABLE VII.

Rural Area, Houses and Inmates 1951.

District Ratnagiri.

Serial No.	Name of village or town/ward.	Area of village or town in square miles (Rural area of the taluka).	Number of houses.	Number of households.	Total number of persons enumerated (including inmates of institutions and houseless persons)			Number of inmates of institutions and houseless persons.	
					Persons.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Chiplun	423·0	25,402	27,127	1,37,255	61,424	75,831	471	298
2	Dapoli	326·9	25,098	27,755	1,29,105	57,000	72,105	165	92
3	Deogad	283·7	17,807	19,616	97,918	43,599	54,319	99	66
4	Guhagar	242·2	17,673	19,687	87,886	37,301	50,585	183	115
5	Kankavli	299·2	17,742	20,502	1,03,101	46,438	56,663	294	176
6	Khed	382·9	21,919	23,528	1,18,384	53,605	64,779	477	368
7	Kudal	296·8	14,153	16,790	88,551	40,672	47,870	96	71
8	Lanje	283·0	13,279	15,148	77,921	35,121	42,800	65	33
9	Malvan	240·1	18,169	20,756	99,963	43,734	56,229	59	55
10	Mandangad	160·3	9,920	10,943	48,956	21,799	27,157	44	44
11	Rajapur	475·0	22,085	25,422	1,28,089	56,570	71,519	....	....
12	Ratnagiri	353·4	23,667	27,138	1,32,295	57,710	74,585	48	31
13	Sangameshwar	491·6	24,199	27,928	1,41,801	63,548	78,253	141	88
14	Sawantwadi	509·0	20,237	22,225	1,06,136	49,875	56,261	104	104
15	Vengurla	99·0	9,910	11,185	56,437	25,757	30,680	159	51
		4,860·7	2,81,261	3,15,760	15,53,858	6,94,113	8,59,745	2,435	1,587

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

HINDUS.

Castes in 1872.

REGARDING THE HINDU POPULATION OF RATNAGIRI DISTRICT (excluding Sawantwadi taluka) the old District Gazetteer (Vol. X) has given a caste-wise enumeration as ascertained from the census of 1872. The following is a summary of those details including pertinent observations made by the Gazetteer about some of the important castes in the district: Under Brāhmaṇs came eight divisions with a strength of 66,046 souls (*m.* 32,223; *f.* 33,823) of which the Citpāvans or Konkaṇasthas numbered 14,367 (*m.* 7,146; *f.* 7,221) and the Śeṇvīs 13,669 (*m.* 6,579; *f.* 7,090). Of Writers the only class was of Kāyasth Prabhus numbering 664 (*m.* 341; *f.* 323). Of Traders there were six castes with a strength of 36,299 souls (*m.* 18,142; *f.* 18,157) of which Vāṇīs numbered 32,569 (*m.* 15,939; *f.* 16,633); there were also other trader communities such as Lingāyats, Jains, Gujar, Bhātias and Mārvādīs which had but an insignificant population. Of Husbandmen with a total strength of 583,730 souls (*m.* 277,863; *f.* 305,867) there were nine classes, viz., Kunbis, Marāṭhas, Bhaṇḍāris, Shindes, Māḷīs, Pharjans, Ghaḍis, Mit-Gāvḍās and Gāvḍās, of which Kuṇbīs numbered 284,267 (*m.* 1,37,275; *f.* 1,48,994), Marāṭhās 2,03,406 (*m.* 97,467; *f.* 1,05,939) and Bhaṇḍāris 70,796 (*m.* 33,671; *f.* 37,125). Of Manufacturers there were four classes, *viz.* Telis, Koṣṭīs, Sāḷis and Saṇgars, with a strength of 20,602 souls (*m.* 10,177; *f.* 10,425) of which Telīs (oil pressers) numbered 16,879 (*m.* 8,278; *f.* 8,601). Of Artisans there were twelve classes with a strength of 46,998 souls (*m.* 23,506; *f.* 23,192), of which the most important found all over the district were Sutārs (carpenters) 15,377 (*m.* 7,602; *f.* 7,775), Sonārs (gold smiths) 12,733 (*m.* 6,320; *f* 6,413), and Lohārs (black smiths) 1,828 (*m.* 992; *f.* 836). Of Actors with a strength of 20,108 souls (*m.* 9,698; *f.* 10,410) there were five classes, viz., Guravs, Devḷis, Bhāvins, Kalāvtīns, and Bhorpis. Of personal Servants with a population of 12,669 (*m.* 6,080; *f.* 6,589) there were three classes, viz., Nhāvis, Parits and Bhistīs. Of Herdsmen and Shepherds there were two classes, viz., Gavḷīs and Dhangars who together numbered 18,505 (*m.* 9,234; *f.* 9,271). Gābits, Khārvās, Koḷīs and Bhois were the four classes of Fishers and Sailors and together they numbered 30,994 (*m.* 15,222; *f.* 15,772). Of Labourers and Miscellaneous Workers there were seven classes, viz., Buruḍs, Bhadbhuṇjas, Tāmbolis, Rajputs or Deccani Pardeshis, Vaḍārs or Beldārs, Rāmoshīs and Vaidus with a total strength of 721 souls (*m.* 374; *f.* 347). Chambhars and Jingars were the two classes of Leather Workers with a strength of 10,694 souls (*m.* 5,468; *f.* 5,226). Besides Chāmbhārs there were three Depressed Castes, viz., Mahārs, Māngs and Bhangis with a strength of 85,528 souls (*m.* 41,756; *f.* 43,772). Kātkarīs, Thākars, Dongri Koḷīs, Lamāṇs and Bhils of Unsettled Tribes together numbered 938 (*m.* 444; *f.* 494). Devotees and Religious Beggars of various names, Gosāvis, Jogis, Gondhaḷīs, Bhutes, Bhāts, Sarāvades, Gopāḷs and Jaṅgams numbered 6,553 (*m.* 3,186; *f.* 3,367).

Citpāvans.

Citpāvans are also known as Citpols, Cipḷuṇas and Konkaṇasthas. The names Citpāvan, Citpol and Cipḷuṇās appear to come from the town Cipluna, their original and chief settlement, the old name

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

of which is said to have been Citpolan. They began to call themselves Konkaṇasthas in about 1715 A. D. when Peśva Bāḷāji Viśvanāth, their casteman rose to importance in Marāṭhā kingdom. They worship Paraśurām, the legendary slayer of the Kṣatriyas and the coloniser of the Konkaṇ. Of their early history or settlement in Ratnagiri no record remains. The local legend makes them strangers descended from fourteen shipwrecked corpses who were restored to life by Paraśurām. The Citpāvans have a tradition that they came from Aṁbā Jogāi about 100 miles north of Sholapur. They say they were originally Deshasths and that fourteen Brahmins of different *gotras* (family stocks) accompanied Paraśurām to Konkaṇ and settled at Cipluna. This does not seem probable as they differ greatly from Deshasths in complexion and features. Fair and pale with, in most cases greenish gray (*ghāre*) eyes, they are a well-made vigorous class, the men handsome with a look of strength and intelligence; the women small, graceful and refined, but many of them delicate and weak-eyed. In their homes they use a peculiar dialect, which is now fast dying out. Out of doors they speak pure Marāṭhī with more marked pronunciation of *anusvār*, the nasal sound. Many of the west coast villages, owned and held by Citpāvans, are for cleanliness and arrangement a pleasing contrast to the ordinary Indian village. Their houses, built of stone, stand in cocoanut gardens or in separate enclosures, shaded with mango and jack trees, and the village roads, too narrow for carts, are paved with blocks of laterite and well shaded. Ponds, wells and temples add to the general appearance of comfort. The Citpāvans are very clean and tidy. Though not superior to Deshasthas and Karhāḍās in rank, they are held in much respect by most Ratnagiri Hindus, who believe that the *mantras* (sacred texts) repeated by a Citpāvan have a special worth. They are either Apastambas or Ṛgvedis and belong to the Smārt sect. They are followers of Śankarācārya. They have fourteen *gotras*. Unlike most castes of the Deccan, a Citpāvan is not allowed to marry his maternal uncle's daughter. They have over all India a good name for their knowledge of Hindu lore, and in Bombay and Poona, some of the most distinguished native scholars in Sanskrit, mathematics, medicine and law, are Ratnagiri Citpāvans. A very frugal, pushing, active, intelligent, well-taught, astute, self-confident, and overbearing class, they follow almost all callings and generally with success.

Seṇavis.

Śeṇavis who claim to be Gauḍ Sārasvat Brāhmans of the Panch Gauḍ order are found all over the district, but chiefly in Malvan and Vengurla. Goa was their original Konkaṇ settlement, where, according to Sahyādri Khaṇḍ, they are said to have come at Paraśurām's request from Trihotra or Tirhut in northern India. Though they fled from Goa to escape conversion by the Portuguese, every family has still a private idol there. Besides Śeṇavīs proper, who are of two sects Smārts and Vaiṣṇavas (the latter known as Sāsaṣṭikar), there are seven local divisions, Bārdeśkars, Kuḍāḷdeśkars, Bhālavalkars, Peḍṇekars, Lotlīkars, Divāḍkars and Khaḍpekājules, each claiming superiority over the other. They now freely interdine and

social restrictions on intermarriage are much lessened. Of these local divisions, except Bārdeśkars, none seem to have come from Goa, and about Kuḍāḷdeśkars because of their difference in colour and features with other sections of the Gauḍ Sārasvats, some are led to believe that they are probably local Brāhmans like the Deshasthas. They themselves prefer to be called simpy Gaud Brāhmans : although they interdine with the other sections they claim to be quite an independent community.

Except the Sāsaṣṭikars and Bārdeśkars, who are Vaiṣṇavas, all the Gauḍ Sārasvats are Smārts. They are followers of Ṛgveda and have eighteen *gotras*. Their family deities are Mangesh, Shāntādurga, Mahālakshmi, etc., the shrines of all of which are in Goa. They have monasteries at Kavale in Goa, Gokarn, Nasik, Benares, etc. In Goa, Kanara and other centres of the caste they have priests of their own caste. In other places, Karhāḍās, Citpāvans or Deshasthas officiate at their ceremonies. Eager to educate their children, and ready to follow any promising calling or profession, Seṇavīs seem likely to keep their high place as one of the most intelligent and prosperous classes of west Indian Hindus.

Vāṇis.

Vāṇis found all over the district and said to have come from north India, are known by the names of the towns where they first settled, Sangameshvari, Pāṭaṇe and Kuḍāḷi. Among them the Kuḍāḷis claim superiority wearing the sacred thread and forbidding widow marriage. Most Vāṇis are shopkeepers, some are husbandmen, and a few are Government servants. They show special respect to members of certain families called *Sheṭiās*, who have the hereditary right to preside at caste meetings. Other families known as Mahājans, inferior to *Sheṭiās*, hold position of special honour.

Lingāyats.

Lingāyats are found chiefly in Rajapur and Sangameshwar. They are said to be partly immigrants from the Deccan and partly local converts. They are in middling circumstances, some of them husbandmen, others retail dealers and pedlars who buy stocks of cloth and spices in the towns, and carrying them to villages sell or barter them for grain. They worship the *ling*, and always carry an image of it in small box, either tied to the left arm or hanging round the neck. As belonging to the Lingāyat sect their religion widely differs from that of other Hindus by holding that a true worshipper cannot be made impure, and so setting the members of the sect free from the need of purification after a family birth or death. Originally doing away with caste differences, after the first spread of the new faith, the old social distinctions regained their influence, and the sect is now broken into several sub-divisions who neither eat together nor intermarry. They neither eat flesh nor drink liquor. They have separate temples (*basti*) and priests of their own who are known as *Jangams*.

Jains.

Jains who are believed to have come from Karnāṭak and who resemble in appearance, Lingāyats, are found chiefly in the south. Besides Jain Vāṇis who are more or less late comers, there are in the

community such classes as Guravs, or temple servants, and Kāsārs, or copper smiths who show traces of a time when the Jain was the ruling form of faith. Jain Vāṇīs who hold a good but isolated position among Traders, most of them well-to-do, are frugul and thrifty and have a good name for fair dealing. They are religious and worship the saints called Tīrthankars. They have their own priests, *Gorjīs* and *Jatis*. Their only temple at Kharepatan is dedicated to Pārasnāth, the twenty-third saint. The Jain Guravs and Kāsārs, the members of both these classes hold aloof from Brahmans and Brahmanic Hindus, refusing, however high their caste, to take water from their hands, and the Kāsārs have as their priests, *gurus*, Jains from the south Deccan. The Guravs, servants in village temples, like the Kāsārs, in matters of eating and drinking, hold aloof from Brahmanic Hindus. Though the village temples are now dedicated to some Brahman god, there are near many of them the broken remains of Jain images, and most temple land grants seem to date from a time when Jainism was a state religion.

Gujars.

Gujars of the Porvad, Nema Umad, Khadayata and Shrimali sub-divisions are found all over the district, especially in Dapoli, Khed and Chiplun. They are settlers from Gujarat and occasionally visit their own country. All are traders dealing in grain, spices and cloth, and lending money. They dress like Brahmans, except that the end of the woman's robe, *lugaḍē*, is drawn over the right instead of the left shoulder, *i.e.* falls from over the right shoulder and goes over to the left. and that they do not pass the robe between the legs. Though they understand and speak Marathi, their home tongue and the language in which they keep accounts is Gujarati. They are strict vegetarians, and for their evening meals never take rice, but eat bread, pulse and milk. Except Porvads, Nemas and Umads, who are Śrāvaks or Jains the Gujars are Vaiṣṇavas of the Vallabhācāri sect. Though they have settled in Ratnagiri for more than a century, Gujar Vāṇīs have kept their own customs and do not mix with other Vāṇīs of the district.

Bhāṭiyās.

Bhāṭiyās are found at Chiplun, Rajapur, Malvan and Vengurla. Coming from Bombay from Cutch and north Gujarat they have settled in Ratnagiri within the last fifty years. Large merchants and shipowners have chief dealings with Bombay, Cochin and Calicut. Ready to take advantage of any new opening or industry, the Bhāṭiyās seem likely to hold the place they have gained as the leading district traders.

Mārvāḍīs.

Mārvāḍīs are found in some of the chief towns in the district. As their favourite occupation of moneylending is almost entirely in the hands of the superior landlords, Mārvāḍīs make little way in Ratnagiri. Besides the few families settled as shopkeepers and traders dealing in spices and cloth, some pay yearly visits in the fair season from Bombay as travelling jewellers.

Kuṇbīs.

Kuṇbīs found all over the district, but chiefly in the northern sub-divisions are the descendants of pure *Śūdras*. Of their former settlements or the date of their arrival in Ratnagiri nothing has been traced.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

They are smaller, darker, and more slightly made than the Deccan Kuṇbī. All are cultivators, steady and hard working; but from their numbers and the poorness of the soil they are scarcely supported by what their fields yield. Many make up the balance, and earn enough to meet marriage and other special expenses by seeking employment in Bombay, working as carriers, labourers, or garden or house servants, or in the steam spinning and weaving factories where whole families find well paid employment.

Marāṭhās.

Marāṭhās found all over the district, are specially numerous near the Sahyādri hills. They claim to be descendants of Rajput families, some of whom came to serve under the Bijapur Government, and the class forms two great divisions those with and those without surnames. Families with surnames hold themselves to be the only pure Marāṭhās, asserting that the others are the offspring of mixed or unlawful marriages. Stronger, more active, and better made than the Kuṇbī, many of them even among the poorer classes, have an air of refinement. As a rule all the Ratnagiri *vatandar* Marāṭhās of a village have the same surname and when one dies the rest go into mourning. Their surnames such as Kadam, More (Mourya), Sheḷke (Chalukya), Palav, Dalvi, and others show their connection with old ruling families. Though most of them are cultivators a large number are soldiers, no caste supplying the Indian army with as many recruits as the Ratnagiri Marāthās. Others go into the police; a few are becoming clerks and schoolmasters. As it has been to the Kuṇbīs, the opening of Bombay spinning and weaving factories has been a great gain to Ratnagiri Marathas, with whole families finding work and earning high rates of pay. Very frugal, unassuming, respectable and temperate most of them bring back to their homes considerable sums of money.

Bhaṇḍāris.

Bhaṇḍāris are found in most parts of the district, but chiefly in the coast villages. They supplied the former pirate chiefs with most of the fighting men, and the name seems to show that they were originally used as treasury guards. They have four sub-divisions, Kitte, More, Gauḍ, and Shinde. Of these the Kitte is the highest, claiming as their own the coast from Goa to Bankot. A strong, healthy and fine looking set of men they are generally well housed, and in dress are extravagant, very fond of bright colours, and when well-to-do, dressing in Brāhman fashion. A strong pushing tribe, they are fond of athletic exercises especially of wrestling.

Shindes.

Shindes found in small numbers all over the district, are the descendants of female slaves. Pure Marāṭhās and Kuṇbis look down upon them. But if a Shinde succeeds, after a generation or two, his children pass as Marāṭhās, and are allowed to marry into lower class families.

Players.

Of Actors the *Bhāvins* and *Devḷis*, found only in the south divisions of Vengurla, Malvan and Deogad, are said to be descended from the female servants of some of the Sawantwadi or Malvan chiefs, who were presented with lands and dedicated to the service of the village

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

god. Of these people the Bhāviṇs are the female and the Devḷīs the male offspring. Among her daughters a Bhāviṇ chooses one to succeed her as a temple servant, and when the girl comes of age, she is dedicated by pouring over her head oil from the god's lamp. The Bhāviṇ practises prostitution and differs from a common prostitute, *kasbiṇ*, only in being dedicated to the god. Devḷīs earn their living as drummers or strolling players, and a few as husbandmen or village temple servants. According to their rules, the sons and daughters of Bhāviṇs, and the sons and daughters of Devḷīs cannot intermarry.

Fishers.

Of Fishers and Sailors, *Gābits* found from Deogaḍ down to the Goa frontier, are some of them cultivators and labourers, but most are sea-fishers and sailors. The women sell fish or take them dried for sale in other parts of the district. Gābīts have some local importance from managing craft that still carry the bulk of the coasting goods and passenger traffic. *Koḷīs* are found on the north coast. The aborigines of the country, they formerly possessed many strongholds, the principal being Kardu near Devghat, whose Koḷī chief, styled Rājā, held land both in the Konkan and in the Māval above the Sahyādris. Except a few traders and husbandmen Koḷīs are all seamen and fishers, very bold, pushing and skilful, owning their own boats, preparing their own nets, and on the whole independent and well-to-do.

Of Leather Workers the *Chāmbhārs* are found throughout the district. Those of Lanje in Rajapur have a local name for their skill in making the sandals, *vahāṇās*, generally worn by the natives in the rainy season.

Mahārs.

Of the Depressed castes, *Mahārs* are found all over the district, but are specially common in Dapoli where they own much land. They are of two divisions, Mahār-beḷe and Mahār-pāḷe. Most of those who remain in Ratnagiri are village servants and field labourers. Mahār batallions are now abolished. However, the old Gazetteer mentions "Large numbers enter the army and have always proved obedient, hardy and brave soldiers. From a statement supplied by the Military Authorities it would seem there are at present 2180 Ratnagiri Mahārs on the rolls of the Bombay army, of whom 1,030 are in active service and 1150 pensioners".

CUSTOMS.

THE MAJOR PART OF THE CUSTOMS OF THE HINDUS CONSISTS of ritualistic practices related to various religious ceremonies known as *saṁskāras* (sacraments). These ceremonies which principally consist of purifying rites are conducted under the directions, according to orthodox practice, of a Brāhman priest. Regarding the exact number of these *saṁskāras* there is a great divergence of views among the *smṛti* writers. According to some, sixteen *saṁskāras*, as they are *nitya* (usual) must be performed, and the rest twenty-four as they are *naimittika* (special) ones are left to choice. They are observed by almost all castes above those that were traditionally considered to be the lowest. The chief of these customary rituals are those at birth, thread-girding, marriage,

pregnancy and death. The *garbhādhāna* (girl-wife's coming of age) ceremony, which used to be once performed separately and with great pomp as then girls were married at an early age, has now become a part of the marriage rite and receives scant attention.

Pregnancy and Birth.

The prospect of child birth is watched with anxiety and eagerness by the family and in her first pregnancy the young wife is treated with great care and tenderness both at her parent's and at her husband's. Her *ḍohāḷe* (longings), as they are believed to foreshadow and influence the characteristics and sex of the child, are fondly noticed and promptly satisfied by the family elders. She has to observe a number of taboos. Birthmarks and congenital defects in the child are often ascribed to the neglect of the *dohāḷe* (longings) and the non-observance of taboos. Because of her delicate condition she is considered particularly open to attacks of evil spirits and following the current folklore she complies with a number of 'do's' and 'don'ts'. The *gṛhyasūtras* prescribe for the benefit of the pregnant woman a number of observances of magico-religious nature such as *pumsavana, anavalobhanā* or *garbharakṣaṇa, Simantonnayana* and *viṣṇubali* and believers in the efficacy of vedic *saṁskāras* follow them to a varying extent.

For her first confinement the young wife generally goes to her parent's house. At the inception of labour pains she takes to the lying-in room which has been swept clean and kept warm, dim-lighted and free from draught. A midwife generally known to the family and engaged beforehand is called in and she attends on the girl from then onwards for ten or more days.

On the occasion of a birth neighbours and relations come uninvited and are given sugar and betelnut. After delivery, the position of the woman is not changed for some time. If the child is a boy, the midwife beats a metal pot and the joyful news is carried to friends and kinsfolk with distribution of packets of sugar. After a while the midwife ties the child's umbilical cord with a cotton thread a few inches away from the navel and severs it with a knife, touches the wound with ashes and lays the child in a *sūpa* (winnowing fan). She then rubs the mother and child with turmeric and oil, bathes them in hot water, and swathes the child in cloth bandages. The after-birth is put in an earthen pot with a pice, a little turmeric and red-powder and buried in a hole in the mother's room. The mother is given butter and myrrh pills, and the child is dosed with a few drops of castor oil and honey. Myrrh-incense is burnt and waved all over and the mother is purified by burning *Vāvding, Ovā* and *Bālantaśopa* in the room. She, with her child beside her, is laid on the cot under which a small fire of live coal is set. Near the door of the room an earthen pot of cow's urine is set with a Nim branch floating on it. That no evil spirit may come in with them, all visitors sprinkle a few drops of cow's urine on their feet before entering the room. During the first three days the child is nursed by giving it the end of a rag to suck, the other end of which rests

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

in a saucer of rice-broth and molasses. The mother is given saltless rice-porridge and molasses for the first three days. On the fourth day the mother and child are given a special bath in warm water after rubbing them with cocoanut oil. The mother is fed with rice, curry, and *khir* or sweet gruel made of rice, cocoanut milk and molasses, and vegetables. From this day she begins to suckle the babe. For a month or more, as may be the regional custom, the mother and the infant are rubbed daily with oil, and bathed and every day the mother is given a decoction of pepper, dry ginger, cloves and other spices.

Sasthi-pujana.

On the night of the sixth day neighbours and kinsmen are asked to sup upon a dish of *khicaḍī* made of rice, split green gram, cocoa kernel, molasses and ghee. The *sasṭhi* ceremony is performed by worshipping a small copper pot full of water on which leaves float and whose opening is fixed by cocoanut daubed with *kuṅkū* and turmeric powder. Some plantains and betelnuts, and a wild red flower called *paṭkuḷi*, are placed by the side of the copper pot which represents Brahma who is believed to come in the guise of an old dame to write on the child's forehead its destiny. A blank sheet of paper, a reed pen, an inkstand, and a penknife are also kept near the offering, and the elderly people in the house keep awake the whole night lest any evil should happen. Next day before four o'clock in the morning the offerings are taken by the midwife to her house.*

The mother is held impure for ten days and no one except the midwife touches her. The family observes *suher* (ceremonial impurity) for the period. On the eleventh the mother and the child are given a purificatory bath, their clothes washed and the whole house is cleaned. The walls and the ground of the lying-in-room are smeared with a mixture of cowdung and water, the bathing place is washed and turmeric, red powder, flowers and a lighted lamp are laid near it. The midwife is presented with a *lugaḍē* and *coḷi* and money. The mother is cleaned from impurity by a sprinkle of *pañcagavya or tuḷśi* water and men change their sacred threads.†

Naming Ceremony.

On the evening of the twelfth is celebrated the *bārasē* or naming ceremony. The *karṇavedha* (piercing of the ear-lobes) ceremony may take place in the morning that day or it may be postponed to

* On the night of the fifth or sixth day after birth, a ceremony known as the worship of *Pañcavi* (Mother fifth) and *Sasthi* (Mother Sixth) is observed among all communities. It is not a *vedic saṁskāra* and as such the configuration worshipped and offerings made differ according to region, community and family. But a common belief exists that those nights are full of danger to the new born child. Only by worshipping Mother Fifth and Sixth can the child be saved from convulsive seizures and most other forms of deseases which are the work of evil spirits lurking in the lying-in-room to attack the child.

† With the spread of education, the practice of sending women to nursing homes and lying-in hospitals is becoming more and more popular and many of the old customs which used to be observed at home are not observed. The woman stays in the hospital for ten days, is looked after by qualified doctors and nurses and is generally discharged on the tenth or eleventh day.

the sixth or twelfth month. If a boy is subject to a vow, his right nostril is bored and a gold ring put into it. Women neighbours, friends and kinswomen are invited to attend the naming. They drop in, each with some present for the mother and the child. In the women's hall, a cradle is hung to the ceiling and a carpet is spread under it. A small oblong granite stone is rubbed with oil and laid in the cradle, and the mother taking the babe in her hand stands on one side of the cradle and says to a woman who stands on the other side, 'Take Govinda and give Gopāḷa'. Then the woman receives the stone and the child is laid in the cradle by the mother or by some matron who takes the child in her arms from the mother. The mother then whispers in the child's ear its name which on common consultation has been settled beforehand. The guests then gently swing the cradle and sing a *pāḷaṇā* (cradle song) lulling the child to sleep. The ceremony closes with the distribution of boiled gram and packets of sweetmeat to the guests. On a particular day, between the naming ceremony and the thirtieth day after the birth, the mother goes to the well, and waving lighted lamps drops into the well two betel leaves and one nut. This is called the worship of the *Jaldevatā* (water-goddess).

Caula.

The *caula* or *cuḍākarma* (the first cutting of the hair on the child's head) ceremony has a place in the Hindu *saṁskāras*. It is also customary with many backward communities to give ceremonial attention to the first shaving or cutting of hair (*jāvaḷa*) of the child. At present among Brāhmans the rite is usually gone through in the case of boys at the time of *upanayana* (thread-girding). Before performing the ceremony, Ganapati, Varuna and Mātṛkas are worshipped and a *homa* offering performed.

Thread girding.

The thread-girding ceremony or *muñja* as it is popularly known is prescribed for all Hindus claiming a place in the first three *varṇas* (caste groups). In essence it is a purificatory rite initiating a boy to *brahmacaryāśrama* (stage of student-hood). In Ratnagiri the castes besides Brāhmans which are supposed to gird their boys with sacred thread are Prabhus and Sonārs. Recently the ceremony is found to have been observed by *Vāṇīs*. Marāṭhās are not known to perform the ceremony but some wear the sacred thread renewing it yearly in the month of *Śrāvaṇa*.

A *kumāra* (boy) is usually girt with the sacred thread some time between the age of eight and twelve. The *muhūrtas* (proper time) for thread-girding occur in the fair season, Māgha, Phālguna, Caitra, Vaiśākha and Jyeṣṭha. The time chosen is at any hour between 6 a.m. and 2 p.m. which the priest declares to be fortunate.

Preparations.

Preparations begin a few days before the thread-girding day. Drummers and pipers to play at the ceremony are engaged. The house is cleaned and white-washed. A booth is raised in front of the house, and its posts are ornamented with plantain trees, mango twigs and flowers. On the western side of the booth an altar known as *bahulē* is raised facing east. Invitation letters marked with *Kunku* are sent to friends and kinspeople.

CHAPTER 3. — The people and their culture.

About a fortnight before the thread-girding the parents of the boy inform their friends and relations who ask the boy to dinner and present him with clothes and money. This preliminary ceremony is called *keḷavaṇa* (entertainment).

Akṣat.

A day or two before the thread-girding, an elder of the family accompanied by some women, the priest and musicians start with *akṣat* (invitation) giving. They may first visit the local temple of Gaṇapati and pray the deity to be present at the thread ceremony with his two consorts Riddhi and Siddhi; they then move from door to door of select friends and relatives and give them personal invitation. The family priest on behalf of the boy's parents asks the people of the house to attend the ceremony, mentioning the time fixed for the celebration, and from a silver cup dropping into the hands of the eldest male a little *akṣat* (vermilion coloured rice).

Ghāṇā.

Early morning of the lucky day musicians start playing on the drum and pipe and one of the priests comes and sets up the *ghaṭikā* (water clock). They then proceed with the *ghāṇā* ceremony. Two *musaḷs* (pestles) are tied together with a new bodice cloth and a basket filled with wheat is set before the boy and his parents. Not less than five *suvāsinīs* take the pestles in their hands, set them upright in the basket, and move them up and down as if to pound the wheat in the basket. They sing songs while music plays. A *suvāsinī* takes a handful of corn and grinds it in a hand-mill to the handle of which a bodice-cloth is tied.

Propitiatory rites.

Prior to the ceremony of *upanayana* proper, the usual propitiatory rites are gone through with the same procedural details as before the performance of an auspicious *saṁskāra*. Gaṇapati, and the *Matṛkās* (Mothers) are worshipped, and *puṇyāhvācana* (the holy-day blessing) ceremony is performed. This is the time for near relations to give presents to the boy and his parents. After this, twenty-seven betelnuts representing the *Nāndīs* (joy-bringing guardians) and six betelnuts representing the booth-guardians (*maṇḍapa-devatās*) are placed in a winnowing fan and worshipped with flowers and *kuṁkū*. The winnowing fan is carried into the house and laid in the family god-room. The ceremony of *caula* (shaving the boy's head) if it was not performed in childhood then follows. The father takes a razor and in a corner of the booth scrapes some hair from the boy's head. These hair with sacred grass, *śamī* leaves, is laid in the mother's hand who puts them on a lump of bullock dung. The barber then sits in front of the boy and shaves his head except some locks and the top-knot. The barber retires with a present of a new turban or a kerchief, rice, betel and cocoanut. The boy is then bathed and taken to the dining hall. Boys called *baṭūs*, girt with the sacred thread but not married, are seated in a row and served with food. They eat, and the boy's mother sitting in front of the boys and setting her son on her lap feeds him and herself eating from the same plate. This is called *mātṛbhojana* (the mother's meal). It is the last time when the boy and his mother eat from the same plate. As soon as the mother's meal is over the

boy is taken to the barber who shaves all the locks that were left on his head except the top-knot. The boy is bathed and made ready for the *upanayana* ceremony.

Mangalastakās.

As the lucky moment draws near, the friends and kinspeople asked to the ceremony meet at the house and take their seats in the booth. The father sits on a *pāṭ* placed on the *vedi* with his face to the east, while the boy stands before him facing west, and the priests hold between them a curtain marked with a vermilion *svastika* (lucky cross). The boy's sister stands behind the boy with a lighted lamp and a cocoanut in her hands. The priests recite the *manglāṣṭakās* (lucky verses) and guests throw *akṣtās* (rice mixed with *kuṅku*) at the boy and his father. At the proper *muhūrta* (lucky moment), the priests stop chanting, the musicians redouble their noise, the curtain is pulled to the north and the boy lays his head on his father's feet. The father blesses him and seats him on his right. *Pān*, perfume and rose-water are distributed among the guests who then withdraw usually receiving a present of a cocoanut each. It is now getting customary for the guests to make some present to the *baṭū* (boy) on this occasion.

Upanayana.

The *upanayana* ritual now begins. The priest and other Brāhmans throw *akṣatā* over the boy's head and seat him on a *pāṭ* to the father's right. A *sthaṇḍila* (earthen altar) is traced in front of the father, blades of *darbha* (sacred grass) are spread over it and a *homa* (sacrificial fire) is kindled on it. The priest daubs a cotton string in oil and turmeric, ties it round the boy's waist and gives him a *laṅgoṭī* (loincloth) to wear. He then rolls a yellow *pañcā* (short waist-cloth) round his waist and a white one round his shoulders. Another cotton string daubed with oil and turmeric and a bit of deer skin passed into it is hung on the left shoulder of the boy in the manner of a sacred thread. Offerings of *ājya* (ghee), sesamum, and seven kinds of *samidhās* (sacred fuel sticks) are made on the sacrificial fire. The boy is made to pass between the sacrificial fire and his father, sips three *ācamanas* and repeats texts. He then goes back between the fire and his father and takes his seat.

The *kumār* (boy) now with folded hands approaches the *ācārya* (preceptor-priest) and makes a request to initiate him into *brahmacaryāśrama* (stage of studenthood). The *ācārya* grants his request, hands over to him a consecrated *yajnopavita* (sacred thread) and a *daṇḍa* (staff) of *paḷas* and gives him general instructions as to how to acquire knowledge. The *ācārya* then takes the *kumār* out to see the sun and makes him repeat a prayer to the sun.

The principal sacrifice of the ceremony is then gone through. The *ācārya* makes four offerings of *samidhā* (sacred fuel sticks) to the fire and then the *kumār* makes an offering of one *samidhā* and then wipes off his face thrice with words purporting "I anoint myself with lustre and may Agni and Indra bestow on me insight, offspring and vigour." The *ācārya* concludes the sacrifice with the final oblations, and sprinkles sacred water over the head of the *kumār* and

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

towards all directions. The *ācārya* and the *kumar* both then stand and offer prayer to *Yajnadevatā* (sacrificial god). The *kumār* bends his knees, embraces the teacher's feet and requests him to recite the *Gāyatri* (sacred verse) and the *ācārya* recites *pada* (syllable) by *pada* the *Gāyatri* verse and makes the *kumār* repeat it syllable by syllable. The *ācārya* then advises the student how to behave in his career of studentship, and tells him of the rules and observances to be followed by a *bramhacāri* (student).

Money presents are made to the priests, who then bless the "student" and the father.

In the evening the *bhikṣāvaḷa* (begging procession) goes to the temple of Gaṇapati. The boy who is attended by his priest bows before the god, and the procession returns home with music and company. On returning home the boy is seated near the altar, the priest sits near him, and places a *rovali* (bamboo basket) or a *sūp* (winnowing fan) before him. The mother of the boy comes and stands before him near the altar. The boy says to her in Sanskrit, "*Bhavati bhikṣām dehi* (Lady, give me alms)," and holds the bamboo basket before her. The mother blesses him and puts sweet balls, rice, and cocoa-kernel into the basket. Other married women follow her example; the boy repeats the same words to each and each presents him with sweet balls or money. The contents of the bamboo basket go to the priest who gives part of the sweetmeats to the boy and keeps the rest for himself.

The last rite of the *upanayana* ceremony is *medhā-janana*. A small square earthen mound is raised and a *paḷas* branch is planted in it. The *kumār* pours water round the plant, prays *medhā*, the goddess of mind, to give him knowledge and wealth.

The *upanayana* ceremony which formerly came to a close on the fourth day, now-a-days ends on the same day. The "betelnut Gaṇapati" and the "metal pot Varuṇa" are, as at beginning of the ceremony, invoked and then bowed out and the back of the *sūp* (winnowing fan) is beaten with a stick to show that the ceremony is over, and it is time for friends and kinsfolk to leave. The boy is now a *bramhacāri* (an unwed religious student) and from now on for some years should learn the *vedas* at the feet of his *guru* and completing his study undergo the *samāvartana* (return) ceremony. But, according to the present custom the *samāvartana* or the *soḍa muñj* ceremony, as it is called, follows immediately after the *upanayana*. The boy discards the *muñj* (triple sacred-grass waistcord) and his *langoṭi* (loincloth), puts on a silk-bordered waistcloth, a coat, a shoulder cloth, a *jari* cap, and a pair of shoes, takes an umbrella, and sets out as if on a journey to Benares. The priest or the boy's maternal uncle as may be the custom meets him on the way and promises to give him his daughter in marriage so that the boy may marry and become a *gṛhastha* (householder).

The people and their culture.

Marriage.

Hindus consider *vivāha* (marriage) as one of the *śarīrasaṁskāras* (sacraments sanctifying the body) through which every man and woman must pass at the proper age and time, and as such they think it is obligatory on every person to marry. As a sacrament a marriage can be established only after going through certain rites and ceremonies. The present-day customs and ceremonial practices observed by Hindus regarding it fall in three broad classes, viz., (1) The traditional form generally used by professional priests for conducting marriage ceremonies of Brahmans and allied classes. It is maily based on rites prescribed in the *gṛhyasūtras* and in it Vedic *mantras* are freely used. (2) The *paurāṇika* form which is essentially the same as (1) but in it *paurāṇika mantras* instead of Vedic ones are used. (3) Modern forms which are variants of (1) and (2) and are preached by sponsors of movements of reformism or revivalism among the people. Even when the ceremony is celebrated in the traditional way, the general tendency now-a-days is towards curtailing details to the extent of winding up the ceremony in a day or two and thereby aligning it with the modern form. The following description pertains to that of the traditional form generally observed by higher classes.

According to the orthodox way of life there exist a number of restrictions on a marriage selection. Rules of endogamy (i.e. rules requiring marriage within a certain large community) prohibit marriage outside the *varṇa* or *jāti* (caste or sub-caste); rules of exogamy which operate within the endogamous group prohibit marriage between *sapiṇḍas* (blood relations), *sagotras* and *sapravaras* (same eponymous groups). Brahmans generally claim *gotras* and *pravaras* and abide by *gotra* and *pravara* exogamy. Non-Brahman communities have *kuḷi* (stock), *devak* (totem) and surnames as exogamous divisions. The restriction on *sapiṇḍas* is extended to seven degrees on the father's side and five degrees on the mother's side, but the prohibited degrees of kindred for marriage beyond the agnates (related on the father's side) vary according to the custom of the community. Except among Chitpāvans, marriage with the daughter of one's maternal uncle is allowed among many castes. A Deśastha may marry his sister's daughter, but those of the Mādhyandina *śākhā* do not marry a girl whose father's *gotra* is the same as the *gotra* of the bridegroom's maternal grandfather.

A marriage alliance is arranged or settled generally by the parents or guardians of the groom and the bride concerned. And, *kanyā-dāna* or giving daughter in marriage being considered a great merit, it is always the bride's parents or relatives that take the initiative in the match-making ventures.* Before a match is finalised due care and consideration is given to the age, social status, economic stability, cultural standard, appearance, up-bringing, health and lineage

* Social conditions, however, among advanced classes have now changed a great deal. Among them a practice of letting the would be couple to go for walking and be together to know each other is found. But this is rather an exception than the rule and not the people's custom.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

of the groom. Such information is gathered well in advance by the girl's father who then privately proposes the match to the boy's parents and sends over his daughter's horoscope to them for comparing it with that of their son. Some may hold that considerations of dowry or good looks are more important than the agreement of stars. Monetary consideration is almost invariably the condition at a marriage settlement. But regarding it no uniform rule prevails. Some castes put a price on the bride, others on the bridegroom and there are some who do not put a price on either of the two. Conforming with the *brahma* form of marriage, generally among higher castes a *huṇḍā* (dowry-property which a woman brings to her husband) is paid by the bride's parents to the bridegroom. Among castes not in the first flight the bride's parents usually take *deja*. (*bride-price*) thereby conforming with the *asura form.** It may be noted here that the dowry demanded from the bride's father is under the guise of *vara dakṣiṇā*-money the donee receives from the donor to fulfil the purpose of a *dāna* (gift). In some communities, especially among the middle class educated families of the Gaud Sāraswat Brāhmaṇas in the district, dowry forms an important consideration in a marriage settlement. Education only lends 'appreciation' to the boy's value in the matrimonial market, and scarcity of suitable grooms enforces spinsterhood on a large number of eligible brides whose parents find it beyond their moderate means to pay the stipulated amount or items of dowry.

When primary negotiations are complete the formal ceremonies of *vadhū parīkṣā* and *sākharpuḍā* are gone through. The inspection of the bride (*vadhū parīkṣā*) is a regular incipient feature of a marriage. It is a small show. There is no separate interview of the would-be-groom. On an auspicious day a select party on the boy's side arrange to visit the girl's house with due notice and take some ornament and new cloth (*sāris* etc.). There they interview the girl, have a feast or a tea-party and as a mark of their approval present the girl with the ornament, *sāri* etc., distribute sweets among the assembled and celebrate the *sākharpuḍā* (betrothal). The fathers of the bride and the bridegroom now settle the dowry (*vara dakṣiṇā*) and the presents (*varopacāra*) to be given to the bridegroom by the bride's father; the ornaments and dresses the bridegroom's father gives to the bride, also the gift in clothes or money the bride's father presents to the bridegroom's sister, mother and other relatives. These items may be entered into an agreement and its copies marked with *kuṅku* and exchanged between the two fathers. Both parties are now bound to carry out the wedding. The *muhūrta*, auspicious day and hour for the wedding, is then determined and fixed giving due consideration to *tārābala* and *candrabala*

* In Hindu religious books are described eight forms of marriage of which in modern times two forms are in vogue—the *brahma* and *asura*. In the *brahma* form it is a gift pure and simple; in the *asura* form it is like the sale of the bride for money or money's worth received by her father or other guardian for his benefit.

(i.e. the happy and powerful influence of the birth-stars) of the wedding couple, and the convenience of both the parties. The friends and relations of the bride and the bridegroom now start giving each *keḷvaṇ* (congratulatory) feasts. Both the parties initiate the purchases of clothes and sundry articles for the ceremony always starting with an auspicious item, and then procure and preserve materials and provisions for the regular feasts of the wedding camps. With the help of the neighbours and kinswomen the ladies of the house start preparing sweetmeats and special dishes for the wedding such as *sāṇḍage, pāpaḍ, kuravaḍyā*, etc., taking care to begin the grain and pulse grinding and baking on a lucky day. The last but not least important part of the marriage preparations is to keep ready such articles as *mangala-sūtra* (lucky necklace), *joḍvyā-viroḷyā* (toe-rings) for the bride, and *bāśing-muṇḍāvaḷyā* (marriage coronet and chaplets) for the couple.

Two or three days before the wedding, erection of the *lagna-maṇḍapas* (marriage pandals) starts at both the houses. At an auspicious time the priest orders a hole to be dug outside the front door and repeating *mantras* directs the host to worship the *muhūrta-meḍha* which forms the chief post of the *maṇḍap*. A piece of cloth with a turmeric root, betelnut and rice is tied along with a mango-sprig to the post and an unhusked cocoanut and some mango sprigs are tied at its top. Among non-Brāhmans articles representing their totem (*devak*) are tied to this *śakun-khāmb*. In the pandal at the bride's house is constructed a *bahulē* (raised platform). Measured by the bride's arm the *bahulē* should be three cubits long, three broad, and one high, but the orthodox rule may not be strictly observed. The platform faces east and has a wall constructed at the west piled in graduated tiers, the top tier being decorated with a *kaḷasa* (dome). The whole is white-washed and a set of earthen pots white-washed and marked with red, green and yellow lines is piled four or five high at each corner of the platform. However, in cases of exigency instead of constructing a *bahulē* the back-ground of a decorative drawing in turmeric and red-powder on a wall can serve the purpose.

On the same day of the *maṇḍap* is generally performed the *ghāṇā* ceremony. A couple of hand-mills are cleaned and five *suvāsinīs* (whose fathers-in-law and mothers-in-law are alive) touch the mills with lime at five places and tie to their handles mango leaves and a turmeric root, some wheat and a betel-nut tied in a piece of new cloth. The ladies then grind some rice, a little wheat and *udid* pulse in the mills. Two wooded pestles are then tied together with a piece of new cloth containing turmeric root, and a betel-nut and a little wheat. The ladies also pound some wheat put into a bamboo basket with these pestles. The provisions for the marriage are to be prepared after this ceremony has been performed, but in practice this rule is not observed. Nowadays the ceremony is perfunctorily performed on the marriage day.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

Invitations.

Invitations to marriage are effected in three different ways, viz. (1) the parents or their nearest kinsmen or friends headed by their family priest with *akṣatā* (rice tinctured with *kuṅkū*) visit the houses of their castemen and other families of repute or good acquaintance and give an oral and personal invitation to attend the marriage ceremony and the feast thereafter. (2) The next one is to engage a priest who would officiate at the marriage and go round with such oral invitatons. (3) The last one is through the medium of printed invitation letters or cards and distributing or posting them. There is always a typical form of such invitations, and their text also is stereotyped. They begin with the invocation of the blessing of the family deity. Then the text runs mentioning the names of the wedding pair and requesting the pleasure of company with family and friends of the invited to the function which is to take place at the specified place and town at the *muhūrta* mentioned technically according to Hindu calendar in *praharas*, *ghatikās* and *paḷās* of *tithi* and *miti*, etc., its equivalent in standard time also being given. Divided or undivided a family invitation is issued in the name of the eldest brother or senior-most member of the family, other members finding their due place in the list thereafter. Now-a-days we find a growing list of names of some rich or high connections or important relatives of either families lending their names and best compliments to the invitation. Perhaps, the latest fashion in invitation in cards is to send them in the name of the bride and bridegroom and to request the invites to be present either at the actual wedding or at the reception held thereafter.

A formal invitation ceremony and procession known as *akṣat* may take place a day or two before the marriage. An offering of cocoanut, betel leaves and nut is made to the family-god and *akṣatās* are placed before the image asking the deity to be present at the wedding. Then the party offers prayers at the shrine of the *grāma-devatā* and other temples and thence calls at the houses of local friends and kinsfolk to give the formal invitation or the reminder thereof.

On the marriage eve the bridegroom and his party arrive at the bride's village and halt at the local temple. The bride's father meets them at the place with music and a band of friends and both the fathers present each other with cocoanuts. The party is then taken to the house of some friend of the bride's father and there the guests are welcomed with *simāntpūjan*. The bridegroom is worshipped by the bride's father attended by his priest with sandal-paste, flowers, sweetmeats and clothes; the guests are treated to betel, flowers and perfume and the ladies pay special honour to the bridegroom's mother, sister and other closer female relatives. Where the payment of dowry is the condition of the marriage settlement the amount or a part of it is usually paid by the bride's father at this time. The bride's party then escorts the bridegroom and his party to some house (*jānosghar*) in the neighbourhood of the bride's place and returns home.

Phulasāḍi.

By night time a present called *phulasāḍi** consisting of *lāḍūs* (sweet balls) as big as cocoanuts, a rich *sāri* and *khaṇ* (bodice piece) and an ornament goes in a procession from the bridegroom to the bride. Generally the present is carried by servants and *bhāviṇs* and displayed at the bride's place in the light of *candrajyoti* (flash light) for the bride's mother and other people to see.

Early on the wedding day as a prelude to the *vivāh* (wedding) ceremony a number of propitiatory rites are gone through both at the bride's and the bridegroom's.

The musicians begin to play and the *ghāṇā* ceremony is gone through if not previously performed. The bride and bridegroom are then rubbed with turmeric paste and bathed in warm water. Generally when the boy's bath is over what remains of the turmeric and oil mixture after being used for him (*uṣṭi-haḷad*) is ceremonially taken with a *sāḍi* and bodice-cloth by five married women to the bride's place. There the ceremony of applying turmeric paste and giving bath as at the boy's is repeated for the girl. The boy's sister then fills the girl's lap, presents her the *sāḍi* and bodice-cloth and does similar honours to the girl's mother and sister. The priests then make four heaps of rice and worship Gaṇapati or the evil-averting god. by laying on one of the heaps a cocoanut representing Gaṇapati and two betelnuts and two betel leaves representing the consorts of Ganapati, Riddhi and Siddhi. On two of the remaining rice heaps are set each a copper pot full of water, a betelnut, a silver coin, some mango leaves and a cocoanut resting on its brim, and two betelnuts and betel leaves and several more cocoanuts and two silver coins laid close beside it. *Varuṇa* and deities presiding over all sacred waters are invoked in the two pots and worshipped. The fourth heap of rice is laid in a flat basket. On the top of the heap are set twenty-eight betelnuts representing the *mātṛkās*, one cocoanut, two betel leaves, two glass bangles, a wooden comb, three small cups with *kuṅkū*, turmeric powder and black eye-salve and a *khaṇ* (bodice cloth). These are worshipped to gain the goodwill of the female divinities or *mātṛkās*. Then, to gain the goodwill of the spirits of the hall or the *maṇḍapa devatās* (which are six in number) some mango leaves are tied with a cotton thread in cigar-like forms round *rumbaḍ* and other twigs, laid in the flat basket by the side of the *mātṛkā* heap, and worshipped. Similarly, to win the influence of the evil eye a new earthen jar painted white and containing *akṣtā*, turmeric root and betelnuts, and covered with an earthen dish and a thread wound round the whole is worshipped as *avighnakalaśa* (evil-averting jar). Lighted lamps are then waved round the rice heaps, and those in the basket are taken in the house and kept in the god-room. The other heaps, with the articles placed on them are laid in a basket and taken into the sanctuary of the family god, a small quantity of rice being strewn under the basket. Then the

* The custom is perhaps found only among the Saraswat Brahmans of South Ratnagiri.

influence of the spirits of the dead ancestors is conciliated by offerings of food and by feeding Brāhmans in their honour which is called *nāndi-śrāddha*. Then the influence of the planets is made friendly by performing the *gṛhamakha* rite.

Next comes the ceremony of *vāgdānā* or *vań-niscaya* (settling the marriage) or the ritualistic betrothal. The boy's father goes to the girl's house with musicians, kinsfolk, the family priest and servants carrying salvers, filled with articles of dress, ornaments, etc. There he sits facing west and opposite him facing east sits the girl's father with his daughter. Then the girl's father worships Gaṇapati and Varuṇa, and repeating his *gotra*, *pravara*, the names of his forefathers for three generations says thrice to the boy's father, "I shall give my daughter in marriage to your son," and thereupon the boy's father following the same procedure thrice responds, "I accept". Then each of them takes five betelnuts and five turmeric roots, and ties them to the hem of the other's waistcloth. The priest then brings the bundles of turmeric roots and betelnuts together, rubs them with sandal and sprinkles them with water from the Varuṇa pot, and then mixing them with more turmeric roots and betelnuts distributes them among the assembled guests. The boy's father then after worshipping Gaṇapati and Varuṇa offers worship to the girl and presents her with ornaments, *sāḍī-coḷi*, *khaṇa*, cocoanut, etc. The girl then worships *Śaci* (Indra's wife) and dons the new clothes and ornaments. The boy's mother or some one on her behalf then washes the girl's feet, rubs turmeric paste on her hands and face, applies *kuṅkū* to her brow and sticks rice grains over it, and then telling the house people that she is filling the girl's lap drops into her lap a handful of rice, a cocoanut, a *viḍā*, and some sweetmeat balls.

The ceremony of *vāṅ-niscaya* which was formerly performed before *sīmānta pūjan* now-a-days follows it. It is performed by way of a religious rite and differs from that of *sākharpuḍā* which is a social ceremony and as such in some communities is not observed.

When the *muhūrta* for the wedding draws near, the girl's father accompanied by his priest goes to the boy's house and laying a cocoanut in the boy's and his priest's hands gives them the formal invitation to his house to hold the marriage and then returns home. The time now comes for the bridegroom to start for the marriage hall and he dresses in the marriage dress presented to him by the girl's father. Before the *varaprasthāna* (starting for marriage) may take place the ceremony of *telaphaḷa* in which *suvāsinīs* from the groom's side go in a procession to the bride's and present her sweet-meats, scented oil, and other auspicious articles of toilet, lap-filling and dress. Similarly from the bride's side a *rukhavat* (repast consisting of several *nirlepa*, i.e. waterless dishes) is taken to the bridegroom's and served. After partaking of the repast the bridegroom dressed in his marriage suit, his cheeks touched with lampblack and *kuṅkū* and his brows decorated with marriage chaplets, is led by the family priest to the god-room. On bowing low before the house god and then before the family elders he is led to the front

door. There curds are thrice laid on his right palm and thrice he sips the curds and then wipes his hand. He then rides a horse or is seated in a car and his friends and relations form a procession to escort him to the girl's place. In the procession, behind the bridegroom, walk his mother carrying in her hand a lamp of five wicks which has been kept burning before the household god from the beginning of the ceremony, and his sister with an earthen jar filled with water and covered with mango leaves and a cocoanut. On reaching the bride's house *suvāsinis* pour water on the hoofs of the horse on which the bridegroom has come. The bridegroom then dismounts. The bride's mother meets him at the entrance of the pandal with a dish holding wheat flour lamps, waves small rice balls and wheat flour lamps round him, throws the rice balls to one side and lays the wheat flour lamps at his feet. Another *suvāsinī* pours dish-full of water mixed with lime and turmeric on his feet. Then the bride's father holding the bridegroom by the right hand leads him to a place near the *bahulē* where he is seated on a high stool, his feet washed by the girl's father with water poured from a pot by the girl's mother. The father then worships the bridegroom and pours *madhuparka* (honey and curds mixed together) over his hand to sip and presents him with a suit of rich clothes. The elder son-in-law is also similarly worshipped and honoured by the bride's father at this time. The paper on which the auspicious time for the marriage is written is worshipped by the two fathers. Meanwhile the bride who may be clad in the orthodox fashion in yellow *sūrī* known as *aṣṭaputri* or *vadhūvastra* and a short-sleeved, backless bodice, sits before *Gaurihar* (the marriage god which is an image of Śiva and his consort Gauri) in the house, throws a few grains of rice and sesamum over the image, and prays with the words, ' Gauri, Gauri, grant me a happy wifehood and long life to him who is coming to my door."

Two *pāṭs* are now arranged near the marriage altar on each *pāṭ* there being a small heap of rice. The bridegroom takes off his turban and coat but keeps the *muṇḍāvaḷis* (marriage chaplets) on his brows and stands on one heap facing west. An *antarpaṭ* (curtain) marked with *swastika* is stretched before him north-west between the two rice heaps. As the auspicious moment draws near the bride decorated with flowers and ornaments and her brows covered with *muṇḍāvaḷis* (marriage chaplets) is led by her maternal uncle and made to stand on the other heap facing west. The bridegroom's sister stands behind the bridegroom and the bride's sister stands behind the bride as the maids of the pair, each with a lighted lamp and a *karā,* a copper water jug filled with water and covered with mango leaves and a cocoanut. The bride and bridegroom are each given a garland of flowers to hold and they are told to look at the lucky cross on the curtain and pray to their family gods. *Maṅgalakṣatās* (red rice) are distributed among the guests and the priests standing on either side of the curtain start chanting *maṅgalāṣṭakās* (auspicious verses) and all throw the *akṣatās* (red rice) at the bridal pair at the end of each lucky verse. When the

CHAPTER 3.
—
The people and their culture.

auspicious moment comes, at a sign from the priests the musicians raise a great din and the curtain is withdrawn to the north. The eyes of the boy and the girl meet and the bride first puts the garland in her hand round the neck of the groom and then the groom round the bride's. Their eyes are touched with water from the *karā* by their maids standing behind them. The priest tells them to think of their family deities and asks them to sit. The assembled guests are then entertained. Each is given a flower bouquet, a sprinkle of rose-water, a smear of *attar*, *pān-supārī* and in some cases a pair of cocoanuts one from the bride's side and the other from the groom's. They are then regaled with spiced milk or sweet drinks. The Brahmans assisting in the ceremony are paid *dakṣiṇā* to make the happy event.

Kanyādāna.

The *kanyā-dāna* (giving away of the maiden) ceremony is now proceeded with. A *suvāsinī* applies red-powder to the brows of the priest, the bride's parents, the bride and the bridegroom. All then stand, the priest holding a plate in his hand, and the bride, the bridegroom and the bride's parents standing round the plate. The bride holds her *añjali* (hands joined and hollowed as for holding water) over the plate and the bridegroom lays his hands similarly over those of the bride. Over their hands the bride's father holds his open right palm slanting and on it the bride's mother pours a libation of water which falls in the *añjali* of the bride and the groom and thence dribbles into the plate. This rite symbolising the giving away (*dāna*) of the daughter is followed by that of acceptance (*pratigraha*) on the part of the bridegroom who then recites the *kāma-sukta* (hymn to love). Thereupon the father exhorts the bridegroom not to fail the girl in his pursuit of *dharma*, *artha* and *kāma*, and the groom replies three times that he shall never fail her in these. The bride and bridegroom then shower on each other's head *ārdrākṣtā* (wet unbroken rice grains) and the priests chanting benedictory verses sprinkle water over their heads. This is followed by the rites of *sūtraveṣṭana* and *kankaṇābandhana*: The officiating priests wind cotton yarn in a double circle or figure of eight several times round the necks and wrists of the bride and bridegroom, reciting Vedic verses. When the figure eight is formed the yarn is cut at the points where the threads cross. The upper half is drawn over the necks of the pair and the lower half is drawn over their feet. These threads are afterwards twisted into separate cords, and pieces of turmeric are tied to both ends. The upper half is bound round the left wrist of the bride and the lower half round the right wrist of the bridegroom.

Next comes the *vivāha-homa* rite which is followed by the rites of *pāṇi-grahaṇa*, *lājā-homa*, *agni-pariṇayana*, *aśmārohaṇa* and *saptapadī*. These rites which form the essence of the *vivāha saṁskāra* are generally performed on the *bahulē* (raised platform). As prescribed by *gṛhya sūtras* the *vivāha-homa* rite requires that, having placed a mill-stone to the west of the fire (which is kindled symbolically as a divine witness and sanctifier of the *saṁskāra*) and having

deposited a water-pot to the north-east of the fire, the bridegroom has to offer oblations, the bride participating in the offering by grasping the hand (of the groom) that makes the offering. This is followed by the *pāṇigrahaṇa* (holding the hand) rite: Here the bridegroom stands facing the west, while the bride sits in front of him with her face to the east, and seizing her hand he recites the *Vedic mantra* purporting to say that he takes her hand in his as gods Bhaga, Aryamā, Savitā, and Purandhi have given over her to him so that together they may fulfil their *dharma* as householders. This is followed by the *lājā-homa* rite in which the bride offers the sacrifice (*homa*) of fried grain poured in her hands by her brother to the gods so that they may be pleased to release her from their bonds. After this the rite of *agni-pariṇayana* (walking around the sacred nuptial fire) follows: Here three times the bridegroom leads the bride round the nuptial fire and waterpot, keeping their right sides towards both of them; at the end of each round the bride with the helping hand of the groom treads on a flat stone following the rite of *aśmārohaṇa* (mounting the stone). Thereafter the groom loosens two locks of the bride's hair. Then follows the most important rite in the whole *saṁskāra*, viz., the *saptapadi* (taking seven steps together): Seven heaps of rice are arranged by the priest in a row to the north of the sacrifical fire and as the groom leads the bride in the north-eastern direction she puts her right foot on the rice heaps one by one the priest chanting *mantra* (for the bridegroom to recite) at each of her step. At the end, the bride stands on the flat stone and the bridegroom leads her once round the fire. They then take their seats on the *pāṭs* and feed the fire with *ghee* and parched grain. The couple is then taken outside of the house and the priest points out to them *Dhruvárundhati*, the pole star and Arundhati.

With the performance of the rites of *kanyādāna*, *pāṇigrahaṇa*, *vivāha-homa* and *saptapadi*, the Hindu marriage is considered to be final and irrevocable. The concluding ceremonies that now follow are *varāt*, i.e. the homeward return of the bridegroom with the bride in a procession and *gṛhapraveśa*, i.e. the ceremonial home-entering of the newly wed. Till this house-warming ceremony takes place the bridegroom stays at the father-in-law's and during this period of leisure from rites and rituals it is an old practice for the newly wed to regale themselves by playing at dice, etc. together and get to know each other informally and intimately.* In the evening a rich dinner known as *kanyādāna samāradhana* (usually at the joint expense of both the parties) is served to all intimate relations and friends. At this dinner it is customary for the 'wife' to serve her

* In former times when the bridegroom's stay at the father-in-law's, used to extend over four days the time was spent in holding feasts and merry-making. The couple were made to play games such as, 'odds and evens' (*eki-beki*), ring-picking, betelnut game, *vidyā-todnē* (biting off a folded betel leaf or a piece of copra held tightly with teeth) and splashing each other with coloured water, giving much amusement to the family people. This practice is now rarely followed.

'husband' a select dish and request of him for a *ghās* (morsel) addressing him by his name in an *ukhāṇā* (rhymed riddle).

Before holding this feast or immediately after, a peculiar ceremony known as *aṣṭavarga* (honouring the eight) is observed among the Gauḍ Sāraswat Brāhmaṇs: The bridegroom's father chooses eight men of his family stock who headed by the bridegroom sit in a row. The bride then lays a plantain leaf before each, serves in it sweetmeats and fruits and starting from the bridegroom's dish pours in an unbroken line a jet of liquid *ghee* over all the dishes. Each of the eight men then partakes of the sweetmeats and puts his gift or money present in the *ārati* waved round his face by the bride. This ceremony is known as *aṣṭavarga,* i.e. hospitality to eight members of the family stock or *gotracāṭē,* i.e. admitting (the bride) in the family stock.

The time now approaches for the "married daughter' to take leave of her parents and accompany her husband to her new home. Some ceremonies to mark the farewell take place. An *airaṇi* or *zāl* which is a wicker-work basket containing several gifts such as cocoanuts, betelnuts, fruits, cooked food and water jars filled with water and coins is presented by the bride's father to the bridegroom's mother and other relatives. The basket is held on the head of the person to be honoured, and while some water is poured on it, the priest on behalf of the bride's parents, repeats a verse in Sanskrit meaning, 'We have cared for our child till now, and now we give her to your son. We pray you to treat her with a mother's kindness.' This may be followed by the ceremony of *sunmukha* in which the bride's father makes the bride sit on the lap of the bridegroom's father, and her mother makes her sit on the lap of the bridegroom's mother's lap, and the bride then receives a gift of *sāḍi* and bodice-piece from her parents-in-law.

The bridegroom's party now get ready for the *varāt* (the home-ward return of the bridegroom with the bride in a procession) ceremony. The ends of the bride's and bridegroom's robes are knotted together and the pair entering the house bow to the gods and then to the parents of the bride and receive their blessings. On this, with the bride's friends and relatives and the bridegroom's people, they go in procession to the bridegroom's house. On arriving at the bridegroom's the party stands close to the front door. The bridegroom's mother enters the house and returns bringing in her hands a metal cup full of water and a tray which contains a *lāmaṇa-divā* (five-wicked hanging lamp) and four rice-flour lamps. She first waves the water round the faces of the couple and throws it in the courtyard, and next, after waving the lighted rice-flour lamps round their faces, places the hanging lamp in the bride's right hand. Then the bridegroom, followed by the bride, walks into the house, care being taken that the bride does not tread on the threshold and that she steps into the house with her right foot first. On entering the reception hall the bride hangs the lamp to a hook which has

been placed there to receive it. The bride and bridegroom then sit on two *pāṭs* and the bridegroom taking a metal tray spread with rice writes on it a name. This, which is the bride's married name is read aloud and the letters in which it is traced are worshipped. The couple then visits the god's room to bow to the gods. The ends of their robes which were knotted together are untied. The bridegroom takes off his marriage cornet which is separated from the cord and tied to the main post of his house; the cord is divided into three parts one of which is given to some married woman, the second is worn by the bride in her hair and a third is kept carefully in some safe place. A ritualistic closure to the marriage ceremony is now put with the rites of *devakotthāpana* and *maṇḍapodvāsana*, whereby the deities that had been invited before the ceremony began are taken leave of and the marriage booth is dismantled.

When the ceremony is over, generally two big feasts follow: one given by the bride's father to the bridegroom's party and the other by the bridegroom's father to the bride's party. During the first year after marriage the bridegroom goes to his father-in-law on all great holidays and receives presents.

Widow marriage.

Though legally permissible, widow marriages are not at all in vogue in 'higher' communities. But in a few lower castes, widows get married or rather there are no social restrictions on such marriages if they take place. But such cases are not so very frequent or fashionable. Even when a remarriage is accepted or admitted the widow has to be a child-widow, i.e. she should not have had the 'bed ceremony' (*garbhādhāna*) with her first spouse. Marriage with the younger brother's widow is allowed in such castes. But there again that widow should have had no issue nor she should have cohabited with her husband. Widow with children is rarely acceptable for remarriage. As Hindu scriptures do not prescribe any rites for a widow marriage its ceremonial varies according to the customary practices of the community concerned.

Among Bhandaris in Ratnagiri district, where the caste is most numerous, remarriage of widow is permitted with the sanction of the caste *panch*. A widow is not allowed to marry her father's sister's or mother's sister's son, or a member of her late husband's or father's section. Generally widow remarriage is not looked upon with favour by the community. Unwidowed women are not allowed to attend the ceremony, and the remarried widow is not allowed to cook or be present on auspicious occasions. As a rule a bachelor is not allowed to marry a widow. The ceremony is performed at night in an unoccupied out-house. The details vary in the different localities according to local usages. The ceremony of *ovāḷaṇī* (waving a platter containing lighted wicks, a pice, a cocoanut, rice grains, and a cock) is first performed by a *bhagat* (exorcist) in order to free the widow from the dominion of the spirit of her deceased husband, who is supposed to haunt her. Thus freed the widow is presented to her new husband by another widow who acts as her bride's-maid. She

CHAPTER 3.

—

The people and their culture.

applies paste made of flour of *udid* (black gram) to the left knee of the bride to whom the new husband then presents new dress and ornaments which she puts on in the presence of the assembly. This completes the ceremony. A dinner is then held, and a money present is made to the caste *panch* who sanctioned the marriage. On the following morning before day-break the widow's new husband, accompanied by his friends and followed by her, leaves the house to return home. The widow takes a cock under her arm. When the procession reaches the boundary of the village the cock is immolated, and its head together with a lock of hair from the widow's head and a bit of the new robe worn by her are buried under a rock. The *bhagat* who accompanies the couple till they reach home takes away rest of the cock for his use, and says that he has quietened the spirit of the deceased husband who was believed to have been very jealous of the second husband.

Death and Funeral.

When a person is on the point of death the nearest kin sits close to the dying man and comforts him, assuring him that his family will be well cared for. Gifts are made to the family priest and other Brāhmans as an atonement for the sins of the dying man. Just before death a small piece of gold is laid in his mouth and a few drops of Ganga water are poured into it, and the lips, ears, nostrils and eyes are touched with clarified butter. The names of Rāma, Nārāyaṇa are uttered in his right ear so that the dying man may repeat them. When life is extinct the body is removed from the bed and laid with the head to the north on ground previously washed with cowdung, strewn with sacred grass and covered with a woollen cloth. The chief mourner (the son or next kin of the deceased) bathes in cold water and is expected to shave his face and his head except the top-knot. After shaving, he again bathes in cold water and sets a new earthen vessel at the feet of the corpse, in which, with the help of the family priest, he kindles *gṛhyāgni* (household fire).* If the deceased leaves a widow she parts with her *maṅgal-sūtra* and glass bangles for being cremated with the dead body. A bamboo bier is made ready, and a white cloth is brought to serve as a shroud. The body is bathed in warm water and dressed in a new cloth. If the deceased is a married woman who has died before her husband, she is seated and decked with flowers, rubbed with turmeric paste and *kuṅkū* mark are put on her brow, and rice, cocoanut, betel leaves and betelnuts are laid in her lap. These honours are not shown to a widow. Under instructions from the priest the body is wound in the shroud by friends and kinspeople, laid on the bier and fastened to it by a strong rope. A copper coin is tied to the end of the shroud at the feet. Bamboo batons are tied together by coir rope in the shape of a triangle, and on this an earthen jar with a burning cowdung cake and some live charcoal (from the *gṛhyāgni*) is placed. This frame the chief mourner carries in his right hand hung from coir ropes as he walks in front of the

* According to the rule of his religion a Brāhman is expected to keep alive in the house a sacred fire all his life.

bier, which is carried on the shoulders of four men of the caste. The priest walks behind with the friends and relations of the deceased carrying in his hand some of the materials required for the funeral ceremonies. On approaching the burning ground the bier is set on the ground for a short time, when the bearers change places and the coir in the end of the shroud is untied and laid on the ground. On reaching the burning ground, the bier is set down and a spot is chosen for the fire and sprinkled with cowdung water and three lines are drawn on the earth with an iron nail. The earth is then worshipped and a hole is dug and filled with water and blades of sacred grass. Then close to the hole the chief mourner empties the burning cowdung cake and live charcoal he has brought in the earthen vessel and prepares a fire known as *mantrāgni,* the priest chanting the required *mantras.* Meanwhile logs of wood are heaped together in a *citā* (funeral pile) and the body is untied from the bier, stripped off the shroud which is taken by a Mahār, and laid on the funeral pile with the head to the north. The waistband of the garment is then loosened and five balls of unbaked wheat-flour are laid, one on the brow, one on the mouth, two on the shoulders and one on the chest. If death happened at an unlucky hour an effigy is made of wheat-flour and placed near the body. The chief mourner lights the pile with the *mantrāgni* (consecrated fire) at the head if it is a man and at the feet if it is a woman, and then at each of the corners, fanning the fire with the end of his shoulder-cloth. He then takes some water in a metal cup from the hole that was made close by and walks once round the pile spilling the water in an unbroken stream. When the circle is complete a layer or two of heavy logs are heaped on the body each mourner adding a piece to it. The bier is pulled to pieces and thrown in the burning pile. After a while when the skull bursts, the chief mourner fills with water the pot in which he carried the fire, and setting it on his left shoulder picks up a small stone which is called *aśmā* or life-stone. Holding the *aśmā* in his right hand he walks round the pile, beginning his round from the left of the head if the deceased is a man and from the left of the feet if a woman, and making a hole with the stone in the bottom of the pot allows a jet of water to trickle. When the first round is completed the hole is enlarged by a second blow of the life-stone, when the second round is finished it is further enlarged in the same way and at the end of the third round the chief mourner throws the pot backward over his shoulder spilling the water over the ashes, and strikes his hand on his mouth and cries aloud. He, then, to cool the spirit of the dead which has been heated by the fire pours water mixed with sesamum in the ashes, and to quench the spirit's thirst pours water over the *aśmā.* The rest of mourners following the chief mourner pour water on the *aśmā,* which is then wrapped in sacred grass and carried home. The party returns when the body is completely consumed.

Obsequies.

At the house of mourning, the spot on which the dead breathed his last is smeared with cowdung and a lighted lamp is set on it. Leaning at the door is kept a *sūp* (winnowing fan) containing some

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

pepper. As the mourners return from the cremation ground, they cast a glance at the lamp, chew a pepper and go to their houses. The chief mourner bathes and lays in some safe place the waist-cloth and shoulder-cloth he wore at the funeral, the water-pot and cup, and the *aśmā*. As no fire is kindled in the house of the deceased that day, relations and caste-fellows send cooked food. The family of the deceased keeps in mourning for ten days during which the mourners take simplest food without milk, ghee or pulses and sleep on mats. The chief mourner is expected to take only one meal a day without using salt and abstain from all social intercourse up to the tenth day, the family gods being worshipped by a man who is not a kinsman. At the beginning of each meal the chief mourner offers a ball of rice to the lamp which is kept burning on the spot where the deceased died, and covers the lamp and the ball with a bamboo basket. The basket is taken off every day before the mourner eats, and again put on after offering a fresh ball and removing the old one. On the second day the chief mourner, accompanied by the priest, goes to the burning-ground if there is water near it, or to some convenient spot by the side of a spring or rivulet, with metal vessels, fire, rice and the *aśmā* and cooking the rice offers a ball with water to the *aśmā*.

Generallv on the third day are performed the *asthi-sañcayana* (bone-gathering) and other rites. The chief mourner accompanied by the priest goes to the burning ground taking with him the waist-cloth and the shoulder-cloth he wore at the cremation, the *aśmā*, and the water-pot and cup. There he washes the two clothes, spreads them to dry, takes a bath and then donning the fresh-washed clothes starts performing the rites. He sprinkles with *pañcagavya* the ashes of the dead, gathers them into a three-cornered mound and spreads blades of *darbha* grass on the mound. Near the heap he lays five unripe cocoanuts with tops cut open, five wheat-flour balls each on a blade of sacred grass, three in a line and two at right angles. Near the cocoanuts, six small *gādgi* (earthen jars) are set along with rice-balls and sacred grass, and near them a ball of rice is laid and a number of small yellow flags are planted, and a second ball of rice and some water are offered to the *aśmā* which is kept close to the mound of ashes. The chief mourner sprinkles sesamum and pours water over each of the balls and touches them with lamp-black and butter. He dips the end of the shoulder-cloth into water, and lets a little water drop over each ball. The mourner, after asking the deceased to accpet the offerings, leaves the burning ground taking with him the *aśmā*, a few calcined bones gathered in a small jar, and the ashes in a vessel. This bone-gathering ceremony is performed on the third, fifth, seventh, or ninth day after death, but generally on the third. The ashes are thrown in a spring or river and the bones are kept carefully till an opportunity offers of taking them to Benares to be thrown into Ganga ; otherwise they are thrown into the sea. From the fourth to the ninth day rice-balls are offered, with an additional ball of wheat-flour on the

fifth, seventh, and ninth day and ceremonies performed in order that the deceased may gain a new body.

On the tenth day five unripe cocoanuts with five balls of unbaked wheat-flour and five blades of sacred grass, are offered in addition to the ball of rice which is daily given to the *aśmā* from the first to the tenth day. The stone is rubbed with sesame oil, rice balls are offered, frankincense burned, and lighted lamps waved before it. The crows are asked to take the balls away. If, even after much praying, the crows do not come, the mourner takes a blade of the sacred grass in his right hand and touches the right ball with it. He carries the *aśmā* to some pond or river, and standing with his face to the east throws it over his head so that it falls into the water. He then goes home and puts out the lamp, drawing the burning wick backwards till the flame is extinguished. On eleventh day the chief mourner and all the inmates of the house receive from the family priest *pañcagavya* (five products of the cow) and the whole family is purified of the uncleanliness caused by the death. A *śrāddha* ceremony is performed and various *dānās* (gifts) are made to the family priest and other Brāhmaṇs. The *sapiṇḍi śrāddha* (obsequial sacrifice and feast of the dead in honour of seven generations of ancestors) is performed on the morning of the twelfth day. This is a highly complex ritual by virtue of which the deceased who has been a *preta* (ghost) so far, changes into *pitṛ* (guardian spirit) and unites with the mourner's *pitāmaha* (grandfather) and *prapitāmaha* (great grandfather). All members and near relations of the family men, women and children draw near the 'configuration of three rice balls' worshipped that day, bow before it and ask for its blessings. On the morning of the thirteenth day, the mourner anoints himself with oil and bathes and a rite is performed to reintroduce him to the usual routine of life.

Śrāddha ceremonies are also performed on the sixteenth and twenty seventh day and on the death-day (the lunar day on which the person died) of every month for a year, when cooked rice and water are offered to the departed soul, and at least two Brāhmaṇs are feasted. Of these the one performed at the end of six months and the one known as *bharaṇi śrāddha* performed on the fifth of the dark half of *Bhādrapada* are considered essential. All the same these *śrāddhas* are nowadays curtailed by making symbolic offering on the twelfth day. Ancestors are worshipped every year on the same date of the month on which the person died by performing a *śrāddha* rite. They are also worshipped on the same date in the dark half of *Bhādrapada* the rite being called *Mahālaya śrāddha*.

Religious beliefs.

The religious life of orthodox Hindus is mainly covered by the tradition of the caste-group to which one belongs, though even in that case the influence of caste tradition is tending to diminish appreciably with the spread of modern education. The whole of their religion may be said to be centered in caste observances; provided that a Hindu observes the rules of his caste he is at liberty to hold any religious opinion he pleases.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

In respect of religious observances the several castes in the district may be divided into three caste-groups, viz., (1) Brāhmans, (2) non-Brāhmans, and the so-called untouchables now known as (3) Harijans.

Brāhmans.

In their religious and social customs the Brāhmans in general are chiefly ruled by the *Mayūkha*, the *Mitākṣara* and the *Dharma* and *Nirṇaya Sindhu*. Of the several sections of Brāhmanas in the district Citpāvans or Konkaṇasthas who are found in great number are divided into Ṛgvedis, Āśvalāyans, and Āpastambas or Āśvalāyans or Hiraṇyakeśis. They belong to two *śākhās* (branches), Śākala and Taittiriya. The *sūtra* (ritual) of the Śākala branch is that by the seer Hiraṇyakeśi. The Gaud Sāraswats are Ṛgvedis of Āśvalāyana *sūtra, Śākala śākhā,* and so also the Karhāḍās. The few Deshasthas who are found mainly in the northern part are either Ṛgvedis or Yajurvedis. As followers of Vedic observances these Brāhmans when they call themselves Ṛgvedis or Āpastambas, it means their rites are regulated either by the text of Ṛgveda or by that written by the sage Āpastamba. Besides the allegiance he owes to a particular Veda and *dharmasūtra,* a Brāhman may be a follower of a particular religious sect,* e.g. the Citpāvans are all Smārtas and so also are the Karhāḍās. But the Gaud Sārasvats and the Deśasthas have among them sections which are either Smārtas or Vaiṣṇavas or Mādhvās. The Smārtas are followers of Śaṅkarācārya, the apostle of the doctrine that the soul and the universe are one, *advait vedāntamata,* and the Vaiṣṇavas who are mainly Bhāgavatas, that is, followers of the Bhāgavata Purāna, hold the doctrine that the soul and the universe are distinct, *dvaita vād.* Besides a Veda and a sect the Brāhmans worship a number of family gods and abide by some traditional beliefs, e.g. Citpāvans with equal readiness worship Viṣṇu, Śiva, and other gods, have chief places of pilgrimage, Parshurām in Chiplun, Gaṇapatipulē in Ratnagiri, Hareshvar in Janjira, and other places held sacred by all Hindus, as Benares, Allahabad, Pandharpur, Nasik, and Mahabaleshwar; like other Brāhmans their chief household gods are Gaṇapati, Annapūrṇā, Gopāl Kṛṣṇa, Shāḷigrām, and Suryakānt.

Non-Brāhmans.

Among non-Brāhmans of the district the predominating communities are Bhaṇḍāris, Kuṇbis, Marāṭhās and Vānīs. Of these some *vatandar* Marāṭhā families claim that they are *kṣatriyās*, and the

* Regarding the religious sects among Hindus of Ratnagiri District and Sawantwadi, the following details were given in the census returns of 1872. Details by religious sects are not given in any later census returns. But, as among the Hindus sons generally follow the faith of their fathers, these details may be broadly said to reflect the relative proportion of their present distribution in Ratnagiri.

Ratnagiri District (1872): Of the total Hindu population of 941,049, the Vaiṣṇavas numbered 7,549 of which 26 were Rāmānujis, 660 Vāllabhacāris, 1 Kabirpanthi, 506 Madhvācāris, and 1 Svaminārāyan. The Lingāyatas numbered 6,340; the Saivns 931,509; Ascetics 517, Unsectarians 12; and Śrāvaks 1,417.

Sawantwadi State (1872): Of the total population of 182,688 Hindus, 142 were Madhvācāri, Vaiṣṇavas, 13,345, Śaivas, 119 Śrāvaks and the rest 169,002 were worshippers, of gods and spirits without belonging to any sect.

Kuḍaḷe Vānis claim that they are *Vaiśyās*. As such they consider themselves entitled to observe Vedic rituals and have a religious status on par with *Brāhmans*. The rest of the communities who are known as *Śūdras* labour under certain religious disabilities laid down by the Hindu *dharmaśāstras*, e.g., a *Śūdra* could not be initiated into Vedic study, and the only *āśrama* out of the four that he was entitled to was that of the householder.

Harijans.

Mahārs and Chāmbhārs are the two big Harijan communities in the district. Of these the Chāmbhārs profess Hinduism and follow the Hindu law of inheritance. Generally speaking the caste employs Brāhmans for religious and ceremonial purposes, and belongs both to the Śaiva and Bhāgavat sects. The deities of their special devotion are Bahirobā, Janāi, Jobhāi and Jokhāi. They install a cocoanut among the house gods in the name of the deceased ancestors. The cocoanut is renewed every year, the old one being broken and the kernel distributed as *prasād*. Some may have a *bāvā* or spiritual teacher belonging to their caste, whom they hold in great reverence. Mahārs, though socially much degraded are a religiously minded class professing Hinduism. They are both Śaivas and Vaiṣṇavas. In the times of Namdeo and Tukārām they were admitted to the Vārkari cult of the *Bhakti Mārg* and had among them a great saint Chokhāmeḷā. Those who are followers of the saint (*Vārkaris*) wear sweet basil or *tuḷasi* bead necklaces and make periodical pilgrimages to Āḷandi and Pandharpur, passing their nights in praying or singing sacred songs or *abhangas*. Mahārs have religious teachers and priests belonging to their caste whom they call *guru*, *Gosāvis* or *Mendhe Joshis*. Besides the usual Hindu gods and goddesses, the Mahārs may worship Musalman saints, and some have *tāks* (embossed images) of deceased ancestors. The Mahārs of Sawantwadi do not worship their ancestors, but have deities in the shape of cocoanuts or betelnuts, called Brāhmans and Purvas, whom they worship on every Monday, applying sandal wood paste, burning incense, and offering flowers. In some villages, close to the chief temples, there is a Mahār shrine where they worship a stone idol or Talakhbā. At other places their family deities are Bahirobā, Bhawāni, Bāpdeo, Chokhobā, Cheḍobā, Girobā, Gauri, Jokhāi, Jarāi, Khandodā, Mhaskobā, Somjāi, etc. The objects of their special worship are the cobra or *Nāgobā*, the small-pox goddess Satvāi and the cholera-goddess Mariāi, whose shrines may be found in Mahār quarters at some places.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.
Religion.

In the religious practices of Hindus, worship—acts of adoration and appeasement directed towards the 'Supernatural'—plays a prominent part. Among Brāhmanic Hindus of modern times Vedic ritual has mostly gone out of use. Even long ago it was replaced more or less by temple ritual. Except for some of the minor *homas*, the *yāgas* and *yajnas* are not now usually performed. *Devayajya* has been replaced by *devapūjā*, and the most significant event in the orthodox Hindu household is the daily ceremonial worship of the family deity. There may be a central place in the house known as *devaghar* (shrine-room) or a specially assigned niche in the house in which is kept a *devhārā* (handy shrine). At least once in a day the deity is worshipped in the form of an image according to rule. There may be many images in a household. Usually five are placed on the pedestal of worship referred to as the *pañcāyatana*. The image of the principal deity, say Viṣṇu or Śiva occupies the centre, with the other four arranged on the sides. They may include objects such as *Bāṇa-liṅga* (representing Mahādeo), *Śāḷigrām* (representing Viṣṇu), *Sankha* (conch) and *Cakra* (discus), metallic stone (representing Durgā) and *pādukās* (foot-prints) of Datta the Preceptor. *Tāks* (small embossed images representing the dead ancestors) are often grouped with other god images in the *devhārā* by backward communities.

In the worship of Brāhmanic images a highly systematised ritual of *devapūjā* is followed which includes sixteen *upacāras* (ways of service). The worshipper first invokes the presence of the deity in the image, and then treats the god he has invited as he would an honoured guest. The images are bathed, dressed, and decorated; food, water and flower offerings are made; ceremonial lamps are waved in front of the images, incense and camphor are burnt and finally the gods are requested to retire. Each act of worship is accompanied by a set formula or prayer. Worship performed by non-Brāhman communities is comparatively much simple. The worship in temple follows the model of domestic worship, but on a much larger and more elaborate scale. Apart from the worship of the principal and auxiliary deities in a temple several times a day, there are festivals connected with each temple which are occasions for huge congregations from far and near.

Among the gods popularly worshipped in temples the principal ones are Viṣṇu under various names and in various *avatāras* (incarnations). Śiva in his various forms, Durga, Gaṇeśa and Sun. Worship

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

of Datta (the Hindu trinity) and reading of *gurucaritra* (biography of Datta the Preceptor) is sometimes followed as a cult and Datta temples are often believed to have special spirit scaring or exorcising attributes.*

Deities.

The deities of the Hindus can be divided into five classes, viz.: (1) The *Grāmadevatās* (village deities), (2) The *Sthānadevatās* (local deities), (3) *Kuladevatās* (family deities), (4) The *Iṣṭadevatās* (chosen deities) and (5) The *Vāstudevatās* or *Gṛhadevatās* (house deities established at *Vāstu*-house warming-ceremony).

Grāmadevatās.

Whenever a village is founded, it is customary to establish a village deity as the guardian of the village. Certain ceremonies are performed for consecrating the place to the deity, and sometimes the deity is called after the village. The principal *grāmadevatās* in Ratnagiri district are Bahirobā or Bhairav, Bhairi Devi, Bhavāni, Bhutanāth, Caṇḍikā, Durgā, Gaṇeśa, Hanumān or Māruti, Jakhmāta, Kālkai, Kshetrapāl, Khemrāj, Mahālaxmi, Mahākāli, Mauli, Pāṇḍhar, Ravaḷnāth, Vāghjai and many others.

Māruti.

In most villages the chief village god is Māruti or Hanumān, whose temple is situated at the entrance of the village which he is supposed to guard against evils of all kinds. Māruti is the son of Anjani and Marut (the wind) and is known for his loyalty to his master Rāma and for his bravery. He is considered as an *avatār* (incarnation) of Śiva, is a *bramhacāri* (bachelor) and one of the seven heroes who are believed to be *ciranjivis* (immortals). He is supposed to be the originator of *mantra-śāstra*, by the study and repetition of which one obtains strength and superhuman power. Since he is the god of strength gymnasts tie his image to their wrists,

---

* Hindu temples (registered under the Bombay Public Trusts Act, 1950), dedicated to the following deities are found in Ratnagiri District.

Śiva Temples: Amnāyeśvara, Anjaneśvara, Ātmeśvara, Bendeśvara, Bhāveśvara, Bhutapāpeśvara, Gauriśankara, Gaudeśvara, Govardhaneśvara, Harihareśvara; Kāleśvara, Karneśvara, Kāśiviśveśvara, Kedārlinga, Khadgeśvara, Koleśvara, Kumbheśvara, Kṛṣṇeśvara, Lingadeo, Nāgaleśvara, Nagareśvara, Naṭeśvara, Rāmeśvara, Ratneśvara, Sagareśvara, Satyeśvara, Siddheśvara, Sivarajeśvara, Somalinga, Someśvara, Sthāneśvara, Swayambheśvara, Trinabindukeśvara, Uddalakeśvara, Veḷeśvara, Viśveśvara, Vyāḍeśvara.

Viṣṇu Temples: Ādinarāyaṇa, Ādityanārāyaṇa, Bhāragavrām, Kopari-Nārāyana, Laxmikānta, Laxmikeśava, Laxmi-Nārāyaṇa, Laxmi-Nārasimha, Laxmi-Pālinātha, Mahā-Viṣṇu, Muralidhara, Nrāyaṇa, Pāṇḍurangadeo, Rādhā-Laxmi-Pālināth, Mahā-Viṣṇu, Muralidhara, Nārāyaṇa, Pāṇḍurangadeo, Rādhā-Kṛṣṇa, Raghunātha, Rāma, Rāmachandradeo, Trivikrama-Nārāyana, Vāsudeo, Viṭhobādeo, Viṭṭhala-Rakhumai, Viṣṇu.

Devi Temples: Bahiri, Bahiri-Manai, Bhadra-Kāli, Bhagavati, Bhairi, Bhavāni, Caṇḍikā, Durgā, Gangābai, Grāma-devi, Grāma-Durgā, Inguli-devi, Jakhamātā, Jāmbhai, Jugabai, Jugai, Kālakai, Kāleśvari, Khaḍjai, Kumbhajai, Mahā-Laxmi, Mahākāli, Mauli, Navalai, Pavanai, Rāmajai, Sānteri, Sāvitribai, Sukai, Varadambikā, Viṭhalai, Vagajai.

Other deities: Bahiravideo, Bhumakā-deo, Bhutanāth-deo, Brahman-deo, Datta Ekanāth-deo, Gajānana-Gaṇapati, Gaṇeśa-Gaṇobā, Grām-deo, Hanumān Kalanāth-deo, Ravaḷanāth, Sombadeo, Vetāḷa-deo.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

and also consecrate one in their gymnasiums. Women desirous of getting children go to the temple of Māruti and burn there before the image, lamps made of wheat flour and filled with ghee. Persons who are under the evil influence of the planets, especially of Saturn, worship the god on Saturdays in order to propitiate the planets. They offer him oil and *śendur* (red lead), place garlands of leaves and flowers of *Rui* plant round his neck, and also offer him *udid* (phaseolus radiatus) and salt. The *pujāris* (ministrants) in most of the temples of Māruti are Guravs, Ghāḍis, Marāṭhās or Gosāvis.

Pāndhar.

In many villages of the Ratnagiri district the goddess Pāṇḍhar is considered to be the *gāṅv-devi* or the chief goddess of the village. The *pujāri* is generally a Gurav or Marāṭhā Kunbi. On every full moon day cocoanuts are offered, and on the occasion of sowing and reaping, goats and fowls are sacrified to the deity. The deities Ravaḷnāth, Mauli, Vetāl, Rāmeśvar and Hanumān are usually worshipped everywhere. The following legend is told about the deity Vetāḷ in the temple at Ajgaon in Vengurla taluka :—As part of his worship it is considered necessary to offer to this deity a pair of shoes every month. The people believe that after a few days the shoes become worn out. The inference they draw is that at night the god Vetāḷ goes out walking in the new shoes.

Vetāḷ.

Sthānadevatās.

The local deities are generally found in special localities or sacred places called *kṣetrās* or *puṇya sthānās.* Thus the god Rāma at Nāsik, Viṭhobā at Pandharpur, Ambābai at Kolhāpur, Khanḍobā at Jejuri, Datta at Ganagāpur are famous local deities. Apart from these a village may have its local deity, in which the villagers may have great faith. Before undertaking any important business they obtain the consent or take the omen of the deity. This ceremony is known as *kaul gheṇē* and it is performed as follows :—Two betel nuts or flowers are taken and one of them is placed on the right side of the deity and the other on the left side. The worshipper then bows before the deity and requests her to let the nut on the right side fall first if the deity is pleased to consent, if not, to let the nut on the left side fall first. Naturally one of the two nuts falls first, and they interpret this as either consent or dissent as the case may be. They have so much faith in this *kaul* that they make use of this method of divination to ascertain whether a sick or diseased person will recover or die. Special sacrifices are offered to these local deities whenever an epidemic like cholera occurs.

Kuladevatās.

Kuladevatās are sacred to particular families or castes. They may be the *sthānadevatās* of a particular locality to which the family or the caste originally belonged and from whence it may have migrated. The deities become the object of special ceremonies known as *kuladharma* observed by the family or caste, e.g. the Gaud Sāraswat Brāhmins who are said to have migrated from Goa, have the shrines of their chief family gods such as Mahālaksmi, Mangeśa or Mangiriśa, Mhāḷsā, Nāgeśa. Rāmnāth, Śānṭādurga, and Saptakoṭiśvar situated in Goa. They hold themselves bound to visit the shrines every four or five years and hold special worship and pay their devotion to

these family deities. Some families of Deshastha Brahmans and Marāṭhās have god Khaṇḍobā of Jejuri as their family deity in respect of whom they perform a family rite called *taḷī bharṇē* on every *paūrṇimā* or full moon day. The rite is as follows :—

A *taḷī* (ulate) is filled with cocoanuts, fruits, betel nuts, saffron, turmeric or *bel-bhanḍār*, etc. Then a pot is filled with water, and on its mouth a cocoanut is placed. This cocoanut, with the pot, is then worshipped with flowers, sandal paste, etc., a lighted lamp filled with *ghee* is put in the same plate, and the *taḷī* is waved thrice round the pot, which is supposed to contain the god Khaṇḍobā. Five persons then lift up the cocoanut with the *taḷi* and place it three times on the pot repeating each time the words '*Eḷkoṭ*' or '*Khaṇḍe rāyācā Eḷkoṭ*'. The cocoanut is then broken into pieces, mixed with sugar or jaggery, and is distributed among friends and relations as *prasād*. On this occasion as well as on the occasions of all *kuladharmas*, that is, the days fixed for performing the special worship of the family goddess or family god of each family, the ceremony called *gonḍhaḷ* dance is performed. On similar occasions among Citpāvans who have *Mahālakṣmī* as their family goddess a ceremony called *boḍaṇ* is performed. It is as follows :—An image of the family deity is placed in a receptacle called *tāmhan*, and is then bathed in *pañcāmṛt* (five holy things). Sandal paste is offered to it as well as flowers, lighted lamps and some sweets and incense. Five women whose husbands are alive then prepare five lamps called *kuravanḍī* from wheat flour and wave them thrice round the face of the deity. All the lamps are then placed in the *tāmhan* in which the deity is kept, and the *pañcāmṛta* and other materials of worship and food and sweet cakes are mixed together. Occasionally one of the five women becomes possessed with the spirit of the *kuladevī*, and confers blessings on the members of the family for their devotion. It is believed that those families which fail to perform periodically the *boḍaṇ*, *taḷī*, and *gonḍhaḷ* ceremonies in honour of their tutelary deity are sure to suffer from some misfortune or calamity during the year.

Iṣṭadevatās are chosen deities in the sense that a person because of experience in his life thinks himself under their special favour and prays and worships them as house-gods or pays occasional visits to their temples.

Disease deities.

Disease both in its endemic or epidemic form is believed to be due to spirit influence. The unfriendly influence of some planet or of some god or goddess or of some spirit is believed to be the cause of endemic diseases, and the anger of some goddess the cause of epidemics.

Epidemic diseases like cholera, small-pox, plague, etc., are supposed to come from disease deities, and in order to avoid the danger of such diseases the people of the village worship the village deity in a special form asking for *kaul*, i.e. favour from the deity, and

CHAPTER 3.
—
The people and their culture.

praying for protection. The *paraḍi* (disease-scaring basket) ceremony may also be performed. A basket containing boiled rice, red powder, red flowers, lemons, betelnuts, betel leaves, etc., is prepared, and on that rice is kept a burning cotton wick dipped in oil. The basket is then carried beyond the village boundary along with a goat having a red flower garland round its neck. The goat is set free at the outskirts of the village. In cases of small-pox, the diseased child and the person into whose body the small-pox deities called *Bāyās* enter, are worshipped with *abīr* (black scented powder), flower garlands, etc. The small-pox deity is sometimes specially worshipped for a number of days. It is represented by a brass or copper *loṭā* with a cocoanut placed over it. This process is called *mānḍ bharṇē*, i.e., arranging the materials of worship. The girls in the house sing songs in praise of the deity with the belief that thereby the severity of the disease is reduced.

Epidemic diseases are attributed to witchcraft by low caste people and with the belief that the power averting such diseases lies in the hands of village deities they try to propitiate them with the sacrifices of cocks, goats and cocoanuts.

The Hindus generally make various kinds of vows (*navas*) in order to procure offspring or with some such object, and fulfil them when they succeed in getting their desire. The vows are of various kinds. They offer cocoanuts, sugar, plantains and other fruits, costly new dresses and ornaments to the deities, and give feasts to Brāhmans. Special ceremonies called *Laghurudra* and *Mahārudra* in honour of Śiva are also performed. Sweetmeats such as *peḍhas* etc. are offered to the gods in fulfilment of vows. Some people make vows to observe fasts, perform the worship of Śrī Satya Nārāyaṇ, distribute coins and clothes to the poor. Some have *toraṇa* (wreaths and flowers and mango leaves) tied on the entrance of the temple and hoist flags over it, while rich people erect new temples to different Hindu deities or hang bells, construct pavements or steps leading to the temple of the special deity. Acts of benevolence such as buildings *dharmashāḷās* (guest houses), digging out new wells and distributing clothes and food to the poor are performed in fulfilment of vows. Women make it a vow to walk round the *Audumbara* or *Pimpaḷ* tree, and to distribute cocoanuts, sugar, jaggery, copper or silver equal to the weight of their children to avert general illness or family calamity. People who have no children or whose children die shortly after birth make a vow generally to Saṭvāi deity to bring the child to the *darśana* (sight) of the deity and feed some (married) Brāhman pairs.

Ghosts and Spirits.

The belief that there exist *bhuts* (ghosts or evil spirits) is found among many. Ghosts are of two kinds malignant and friendly. Malignant *bhuts* are of a ferocious appearance; the friendly ones possess bodies like human beings, but their feet are turned backwards. The character of ghosts is ordinarily to trouble people but when satisfied they are said to prove friendly. They reside in

jungles, burial or cremation grounds, old trees, sacred groves, and deserted houses. They assume all sorts of shapes and forms. Sometimes they appear very tall, and they can instantly assume the shape of a dog, a cat, a tiger, or any other animal.

The following are the principal malignant spirits of the Konkan. (1) *Vetāḷ*, (2) *Brahmagraha*, (3) *Samandha*, (4) *Devacār*, (5) *Muñjā*, (6) *Khavis*, (7) *Girhā*, (8) *Ceṭaka*, (9) *Zoting*, (10) *Vir*, (11) *Ceḍā*, (12) *Mhasobā*, (13) *Jakhīṇ*, or *Aḷavat*, (14) *Lāvsaṭ*, and (15) *Haḍaḷ*.

(1) *Vetāḷ* who is believed to be the King of Spirits is considered a deity and not an evil spirit. He enters into the body of an exorcist and helps him to drive away other evil spirits. (2) *Brahmagraha* is the ghost of a Brāhmaṇ well versed in the *Vedas*, but who was overproud of his learning. (3) *Samandha* is the spirit of a person who died without heir, and whose funeral rites were not performed by any member of his family. It troubles the members of the family, but when invoked through a *bhagat* (exorcist) it becomes harmless and even favourable to the family. A covetous person who dies with his desires unfulfilled is believed to become a *samandha* and would not allow anybody to enjoy his wealth. (4) *Devacār* is the spirit of a Śudra who met his death shortly after his marriage. These spirits are said to reside on the four sides of a village and to gain their favour must be offered cocoanuts, sugar, cocks, etc. annually. (5) *Muñjā* is the spirit of a Brahman boy who died immediately after his thread ceremony and before completion of the final ceremony of *soḍ-muñj*. It resides in a Pimpaḷ tree or in a well, and does not torture but only frightens its victim and gets out only when the patient makes a pilgrimage to a holy shrine. (6) *Khavis* is the spirit of a Muslim or a non-Hindu. (7) *Girhā* is a ghost of a person who met his last by drowning, or was murdered. It lives by the water side and only frightens and troubles people. At night it deceives persons by calling them by their names and leading them into false paths, or to places where the water is very deep when they happen to cross rivers or creeks. It is said that the spirit *Girhā* becomes the regular slave of a person who could capture the hair of its head, but all sorts of misfortune befalls the man if the *Girhā's* guiles to regain its hair succeed. (8) *Ceṭak* which is also known as *Ḍāv* is a ghost of a person of the *Kuṇbī* or *Śudra* caste. (9) *Zoting* which is generally a ghost of a man belonging to the *Khārvi* or *Koḷī* caste may also be that of a Musalman. (10) *Vir* is the ghost of an unmarried person belonging to the *Kṣatriya* community; the ghost may also be of a Rajput or a *Purabhayā* (11) *Ceḍā* is the ghost of an unmarried *Mahār*. It resides in hills and jungles and the outskirts of the village, haunts fields and farms, and attacks domestic animals. To avoid being troubled by it, people offer annual sacrifices of fowls. (12) *Mhasobā* is the lord of ghosts and is equal in might to *Vetāḷ*. *Jakhīṇ*, *Aḷavat*, *Lāvsaṭ*, and *Haḍaḷ* are different kinds of female spirits who to some extent differ in origin and character. (13) *Jakhīṇ* is the ghost of a woman who has a husband alive, and *Aḷavat* is believed to be the spirit of a woman who died at childbirth or during her menses.

CHAPTER 3.
—
The people and their culture.

(14) *Lāvsaṭ* or Avagat is the ghost of a widow. (15) *Haḍaḷ* or *Haḍaḷī* is the ghost of a woman who died within ten days of a child-birth. Of these female spirits *Jakhīṇ* and *Aḷavat* cease troubling their victims on the patient being taken to Narsobā's Vāḍī or Gāṇgāpur.

Holidays.

Hindus have several religious holidays throughout the year but all are not commonly kept. Almost in every month there occurs a *saṇa* (holiday), an *utsava* (festival), a *jayantī* (birthday anniversary of a god or goddess, a saint or a hero), or a *jatrā* (fair). There are also days for individual observances such as *vrat* (vow) or a *upavās* (fast). To the religious-minded Hindu every *tithi* (lunar day) has some religious significance; it is sacred, suitable, auspicious or otherwise for some purpose or another. These get mention in a *pancāṅga* (almanac), but in their observance a person is led by the tradition of his family, caste, and local usage. While all Hindus have a few common holidays or festivals, some sections have their exclusive ones, the Brāhmans claiming many more than the rest.

There are fourteen chief yearly holidays observed by Hindus in Ratnāgiri district; nine of them, are feasts or days of rejoicing, and five fasts or times of penance. The chief feasts are: (1) *Pāḍvā*, (2) *Karka Sankrānt*, (3) *Nāga-pañcamī*, (4) *Nāraḷi Paurṇimā*, (5) *Gaṇeśa Caturthī* and *Gaur*, (6) *Navarātra* and *Dasarā*, (7) *Divāḷī*, (8) *Makar Sankrānt*, and (9) *Hoḷī*. The fasts are: (1) *Rāma-Navamī*, . (2) *Aṣāḍhī Ekādaśī*, . (3) *Gokuḷ* . *Aṣṭamī*, (4) *Kārtikī Ekādaśī*, and (5) *Śivarātra*.

Feasts.
Pāḍavā.

The first of *Caitra* is called *Guḍhī-pāḍvā* it being the New Year Day according to *Sālivahana Śaka* (era). With this day begins the new season, the spring. A *guḍhī* – bamboo pole capped with a small silver or brass pot and a new piece of cloth and a string of flowers hanging to it at a flag -- is set by each householder in front of his house and worshipped. All bathe early in the morning, eat a mixture of *neem* leaves, *gul* and cumin, have a sumptuous meal at noon and in the evening visit the chief temple to hear the *varṣaphaḷa*, (year's forecast), read by the village priest. The day is considered auspicious for building or entering a new house, putting a child to school, or starting a business.

Karka-Sankrānt.

The day the sun enters the sign of Cancer which occurs in July is known as *Karka-sankrānt* and observed by agricultural classes with festivity.

Nāga-Pañcamī.

The bright fifth of *Śrāvaṇa* is observed as *Nāgapañcamī* day when in many a Hindu house a clay *nāga* (cobra) is worshipped and a feast enjoyed. In villages, activities like digging and ploughing which are believed to hurt snakes, are completely suspended and the day is spent in festive gatherings of sports and games. Snake-charmers go about the streets carrying snakes encased in baskets, and collect offerings of parched rice, milk and copper coins made by people in worship of *nāgas* (cobras).

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

Narli-Paurnimā.

On the full moon day of *Srāvaṇa* comes *Naṛali-Paurṇimā* (cocoanut day), a day of festival of definite social value. Because of the auspicious position of the *Sravaṇa* constellation that day, Brahmans and others entitled to wear the sacred thread observe it as a day of *upākarma* or popularly known as *śrāvaṇī* ceremony when they discard the sacred thread that they have been wearing and put on new ones after the performance of certain Vedic rites. The businessmen, particularly in sea coast towns, to appease the rough waters of the monsoon, sea, or rather to propitiate god *Varuṇa*, the presiding deity of all waters, worship the sea with an offering of a cocoanut and pray for the safety of their ships which start sailing from the day. On this day instead of having a *rākhī* tied on the wrist by the sister the agriculturist in Konkan wears a *poute* round his neck or tied to his wrist. This is done at the village temple generally at noon time. From this night they assemble for practising their *Govinda* and *Gauri* dances, the former only a week and the latter slightly over a fortnight ahead.

Gaṇeśa-Caturthi.

On the bright fourth of *Bhādrapada* comes *Gaṇeśa-caturthi,* the birthday anniversary of Gaṇeśa, the god of wisdom and of all auspicious beginnings. A festive image – a painted clay figure in the making of which the artist uses some latitude – is brought and installed in the house with due religious ceremony. The image is kept in the house from one and a half day to ten and sometimes even twenty-one days as may be the family custom, worshipped twice daily during the period and finally taken out in a procession and immersed in the sea or some watery place.

Gaur.

Conjoined with the Gaṇapati festival women hold a feast for three days in honour of Pārvati or Gauri, the mother of Gaṇeśa. No festival is more enthusiastically observed by the agricultural classes of Konkan than the *Gauripūjan.* It occurs within a couple of days after *Gaṇeśa-caturthi.* The first day is *Gauryāvahana,* the invitation to Gauri, second one is *Gauripūjan,* the worship of the goddess and the last day is *Gaurivisarjana,* the immersion day. The image of Gauri which is arranged in a chair consists of a bundle of *Teraḍā* plants dressed in a *saḍī* and adorned with ornaments, and a head made of clay properly shaped, dried and coloured Those who cannot afford to buy this head substitute it with a paper image; the rich may have the whole image made of clay. Among higher castes who do not consider the festival as an important one, young girls bring seven pebbles from the river or the sea, worship and immerse them on the prescribed days.

Navarātra and Dasarā.

The Dasarā, so called from *daśa* (ten) and *ahar* (days) is a ten-day festival in honour of the goddess Durgā, the final day celebrated on the tenth of bright *Aświn.* The first nine days are known as Navarātra, and on the first of these the ceremony of *ghaṭasthāpanā* or the invocation of the goddess to be present in the *ghaṭa* is performed. A copper or brass *tāmbyā* (jar) is filled with water, a copper coin and a betelnut put inside and the mouth covered with mango-leaves and a cocoanut. It is then installed on a few

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

handfuls of rice heaped on a wooden stool and is daily worshipped for nine days as goddess Durgā. On loose earth spread round about it are sown grains of eighteen kinds and sprinkled with water; a string of flowers is daily hung over the goddess. This worship is observed only in some families by tradition, and a common collective worship is held in the village temple. On the morning of the tenth or the Dasarā day Hindus take an early bath and worship their religious books (*granths*), iron weapons and tools, and household gods. They have sumptuous meals at noon, and towards evening they don holiday attire and gather together to worship *śamī* (*Prosopis spicigera*) or in its absence, the *āptā* (*bauhinia racemosa*) tree. On this day the leaves of *āptā* are supposed to symbolize gold and are exchanged while greeting one another. The Dasarā day is considered highly auspicious for the undertaking of any new work or business; and children who are commencing their studies generally attend school for the first time on this day.

Divāḷī.

Dipavāḷī or *Divāḷī* as it is popularly known is the largest and the most enjoyed festival of the Hindus. Strictly speaking, the festival is confined to three days—the 13th, 14th and 15th of the dark half of *Aśvina* but it gets extended by two days with the addition of *Balipratipadā*, the first and *Yamadvitīyā*, the second of the bright *Kārtika*, which closely follow. During the period each evening a number of *pantyā* (small oil-lamps) are lighted in all frontages of the house and in every nook and corner inside.

Of the five days, *Narak-caturdaśī*, the fourteenth of dark-*Aśvina* is the most important one since this day is considered as the *Divāḷī* by all classes. The importance of other days differs in various groups. *Dhanatrayodaśī* and *Lakṣmī-pūjana*, the thirteenth and the last day of *Aśvina* respectively are of special importance to the merchant classes as they have their *vahi-pūjana* (worship of books of account) on the former day and *Lakṣmī-pūjana* (the worship of the goddess of wealth) on the latter. This class is busy with stock taking and accounts, because the next day, i.e. the first day of the *Kārtika* marks the beginning of the new commercial year. *Bhāubīja*, the second day of *Kārtika* is considered more important by the Brahmans and others claiming that status. On this day the brother visits his sister, generally at her house, and by way of present offers her cash, a fine piece of cloth or an ornament according to his means. *Balipratipadā*, the first of *Kārtika*, is one of the three and a half *muhūrtas*, an auspicious time to declare engagements of marriage, etc.

Makara Sankrānta.

The day the sun enters *Makara* (the zodiac sign of Capricorn), which as a solar incident occurs on the 14th of January but on an uncertain *tithī* (lunar date) in the month of *Pauṣa*, is celebrated as *Makara Sankrānt*. It is marked with a feast in the afternoon and in the evening men and women dress in holiday clothes and visit friends and relatives to exchange *tiḷaguḷa* or *halvā* (sesame-sweet) as sweet greetings of the season.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

Holi or Śimgā.

The annual festival of *Hoḷi* begins from the fifth of the bright half of *Phālguna* and lasts till the *Raṅga-Pañcamī* day i.e. fifth day of the dark half of *Phālguna.*

In villages the advent of *Śimgā* festival is eagerly awaited both by the old and the young. Boys from all localities of the village assemble at the place appointed for the *Hoḷi* and thence go from house to house asking for firewood. Bonfires are lit from the tenth day of *Phālguna* but the principal day is the full-moon day, when the *moṭhi Hoḷi* (big bonfire) is celebrated. Daily they arrange the firewood and other combustible articles around the branch of a mango, *Sūvar* or a betelnut palm in a pit dug out for the purpose and then set the *hoḷi* (pile) on fire. They then take five rounds round the *Hoḷi* amidst beating of drums and loud cries of obscene words and later play games of *Āṭyāpāṭyā* and *Khokho.* At the close of the game they daub their foreheads with sacred ashes gathered from the *Hoḷi* fire. This process is continued every night till the close of the full-moon day.

On the full-moon day all the males of the village including old men gather after sunset at the *Hoḷi* spot with their collections of firewood. A huge pile arranged round a newly cut plantain tree, is worshipped and kindled, the right of kindling the *Hoḷi* fire going to the *mānkari* or *pāṭil* of the village. A *naivedya* (offering) of *poḷi* (cake) is offered to the *Hoḷi.* In some places a cock is also sacrificed to the bonfire, and cocoanuts from all the houses in the village are thrown into it. Some of these cocoanuts are removed after they are roasted and distributed as *prasād.* Some persons kindle a small *Hoḷi* in front of their houses and worship it individually, but they can take part in the public *Hoḷi.* Next morning people heat water over the fire and use it for the purpose of bathing with a belief that the water has some curative properties. The day is known as *Dhuḷavaḍ* or dust (throwing) day and the day following is known as *Śeṇavaḍ* or cowdung (throwing) day. On the fourth day *Dhuṇḍā Rākśasīṇ,* a demon goddess is worshipped by the people, and the day is spent in merry making and singing songs called *lāvaṇis* The fifth day known as *Raṅgapañcamī* is the last day of the *Simgā* festival. The sacred fire of the *Hoḷi* is extinguished by throwing coloured water over it and people take out bullock carts loaded with stores of coloured water through the streets and enjoy the liberty of making the passers-by victims of dashes of coloured water. All through the festival small troupes consisting of singers, musicians and a dancer-boy dressed as a girl and called Rādhā go from house to house entertaining and collecting *posta* (money presents).

Vratas.

The performance of some ceremonies are restricted to women alone. They consist of certain religious observances of the nature of *vratas.* The ceremonies of *Haratālikā, Ṛṣi-pañcamī, Vaṭa-Sāvitri, Maṅgaḷā-Gauri, Sitaḷā-Saptamī,* similarly the rites of *Mahālakṣmī, Vasubāras, Sivā-muṭha, Soḷā-Somvār,* and that of *Makara Sankrānt* are observed by women exclusively.

CHAPTER 3.
—
The people and their culture.

The rite of *Ṛṣi-pañcamī* is performed on the fifth of bright-*Bhādrapada* to make amends for sins committed without knowledge. On this day women go to a river, a well or some sacred place, cleanse their teeth with the sticks of *Āghāḍā* plant, and empty 108 *loṭās* of water on the head. They then take seven pebbles from the place and worship them as *Saptarṣis* (the Seven Seers). Their chief rule that day is to eat nothing that is hand-grown. On *Vaṭa-Sāvitrī* day which falls on the *Jyeṣṭha* full-moon they worship a banyan tree or its boughs. Some women in performing this *vrata* live for three days on fruits, tubers and milk. On the *Haratālikā* day *i.e.*, the 3rd of bright *Bhādrapada* women worship clay figures of *Pārvatī*, *Sakhī* (her friend) and *Śivaliṅga*, and fast the whole day. Even girls of tender years observe this fast. During *cāturmās* (four months of rainy season) some women observe the *Soḷāsomavāravrata* (a vow observed on sixteen successive Mondays) at the end of which they hold a grand worship of Śiva and Pārvati and feast at least seventeen *dampatyas* (couples). The worship of *Mangaḷā-Gaurī* is a ceremony performed by married girls for five successive years on every Tuesday of *Śrāvaṇa*.. Similarly, the goddess Mahālakṣmi is worshipped on the 8th day of bright-*Bhādrapada*. On the *Makara Sankrānta* day women worship a *sugaḍa* (two earthen pots tied face to face, one of which contains some corn and *kuṅkū* and turmeric powders) and present it to a Brāhmaṇ. The *Śiva-muṭha* consists of handful of corn offered to the god Śiva by married girls on every Monday in the month of *Śrāvaṇa*. The seventh of bright-*Śrāvaṇa* known as *Śitaḷā saptamī* is a day sacred to Śitaḷā Mātā or the Small-pox Goddess and at some places the female head of the family observes it by taking cold bath in the morning and offering worship to the goddess. *Vasubāras* which falls on the 12th of dark *Āśvina* is observed by some women who have children, with a fast for the day, and at night worshipping a cow and giving in charity a calf.

Fasts.

Other sacred days commonly observed by the people with a fast and usually followed by a feast the next day are :—

Rāma-Navamī.

The birthday anniversary of god Rāma, the seventh incarnation of Viṣṇu and the hero of *Rāmāyaṇa* is celebrated with birthday festivity on the bright ninth of *Caitra*. That day people flock in holiday dress to Śri Rāma's temple. Exactly at 12 noon the *Haridās* announces the birth of Śri Rāma by tossing *gulāl* (red powder) and the people join him. The idol of Rāma is then cradled. The ceremony closes with *ārati*, distribution of *sunṭhavaḍā*, and *tīrthaprasād* and *kīrtana* and *bhajana* held in praise of *Rāma*. The day is observed as a partial fast by the devout who take food after 12 noon.

Mahā-Ekādaśīs.

The 11th day, both of the bright and dark half of every month is known as *ekādaśī* i.e., a day of prayer and fasting, but all are rarely observed. But the two *ekādaśīs* occurring in the bright halves of *Āṣāḍha* and *Kārtika* are considered very sacred as they mark the beginning and the end of *cāturmās* (holy season). They are observed

as fast and prayer days by a very large number of people, and followers of *Vārkari* sect make it a point to visit the temple of Viṭhobā of Pandharpur on those days.

Gokuḷa-Aṣṭami.

On dark eighth of *Śrāvaṇa* falls *Gokuḷāṣṭamī* festival in honour of Śri Kṛṣṇa's birthday. The birth of Lord Kṛṣṇa according to the *purāṇas* took place exactly at midnight of this day and the next day the baby was taken to Gokuḷa. The period and manner of celebrating this occasion vary from place to place. Usually people fast on the *aṣṭami* day, worship an idol of Śri Kṛṣṇa at midnight and celebrate his birth with the distribution of *sunṭhavaḍā*. They break their fast that night with feasting or the strict may postpone it to the next day of *dahikāla* or Gokuḷ-day when the ceremony of breaking the *haṇḍī* is celebrated in temples.

Śiva-rātra.

On the dark 13th or 14th of *Māgha* comes *Mahā-Śivarātra* (Śiva's Great Night) which is observed by devotees of Śiva with a fast and worship. The night is spent in singing devotional songs and playing at *Sāri-pāṭa* or *Soṅgaṭyā*, a favourite game of Śiva and his wife. Next morning after worshipping the god all partake of a feast.

Minor Holidays.

Besides these important fasts and festivals a few minor holidays are found current in the district.

Akṣatṛtīyā.

On the third of bright-*Vaisākha* comes *Akṣaya Tṛtīyā* which is equally auspicious as *Varṣa Pratipadā* as it is one of the *sāḍe tin muhūrtas* and as such is believed to secure the merit of permanency to any act performed on the day. *Ākhāti* as the agriculturist of Konkan understands it is a day which reminds him of the onset of monsoon which is not far off; as an auspicious beginning of field activities he does some spade work on the day.

Tuḷaśi-Vivāha.

On the 12th lunar day of *Kārtika* comes the festival of *Tuḷaśi-lagna*. The holy basil plant usually found enshrined on a pedestal in the back-yard of a Hindu householder is married that evening with an idol of Kṛṣṇa. Parched rice (*curmuras*) and pieces of sugarcane and copra are distributed. This day opens for the year the marriage season of the Hindus.

Tripuri-Paurṇimā.

In commemoration of the triumph of god Śiva over the demon Tripurāsura, people observe the 15th of bright-*Kārtika as Tripuri-Paurṇimā*. They illuminate that night with *panṭyā* (earthen lamps) all temples in the village, but particularly the temple of Śiva.

Rathasaptami.

The 7th of bright *Māgha*, is deemed special festival in honour of the Sun-god. On that day people draw on a small wooden stool an image of the sun, seated in a chariot drawn by seven horses, and worship it with great reverence. Milk and rice are then boiled on a fire made of cow-dung cakes in front of the household *Tuḷśi* plant. If the milk overflows to the east, it is believed that there will be abundance of crops, but if it flows to the west it is taken as a sign of the near approach of famine. Women do not grind corn on the *Ratha-Saptamī* day.

CHAPTER 3. — The people and their culture. Entertainment.

A NUMBER OF FORMS OF ENTERTAINMENT, mainly religious in nature are known to the people. The religious-minded Hindu particularly if he has taken to *saguṇa* devotion (idol-worship) attaches great religious merit to *japa*, repeating silently the name of the Lord, and attending different kinds of religious expositions known as *purāṇa, pravacana, kathā* or *kirtana*, and *bhajan* delivered by professionals in a technique of their own. *Purāṇa* is a reading usually from the Rāmāyaṇa, Bhāgavata Purāṇa and the Mahābhārata in Sanskrit and expounding it in the regional language. This is done generally by *purāṇiks*, professional readers and reciters of sacred books. *Pravacanas* are learned and religious discourses delivered by *śāstris*, and *Kirtans* are musical discourses in which God and religion are described and expounded in poetry and prose. In *cāturmās* only men and women of advanced age attend the reading of the *purāṇas*; *kirtans* have a wider audience. Formerly *kirtana* was a necessary item in the festival of any village deity; casual *kirtans* were performed by *kirtankārs* who happened to pass by the village. Both the professions are now in a decadent stage. A tendency is seen now-a-days to use the *kirtana* institution as a vehicle for spreading more of cultural and social ideas than purely religious ones. Among the forms of religious communion, *bhajana* seems to be very popular at present. *Bhajana* is the chanting of religious songs in chorus. Almost every village in Konkan has a *bhajana* group, which consists of a leader-singer (*buvā*), a *mṛdaṅgi* (drum-player), a harmonium-player and several *ṭāḷakaris* (cymbal players). The *buvā* who is equipped with *viṇā* (lute) and *cipaḷi* (castanets) gives out the song, the *mṛdaṅgi* and the harmonium players provide rhythm and time and the *ṭāḷakaris* pick up the refrain and vociferate it in chorus, clicking their *ṭāḷs* in unison. Some of the *bhajana* groups, apart from their periodical sessions, join temple processions. Sometimes what is known as *saptāha* is organised, when groups of devotees sing the divine name continuously for seven days, taking turns.

In Konkan the recreational fare known as *gondhaḷ* is not as frequent as on the Ghāṭs.

Dashāvatāri Khel.

A type of rural entertainment perhaps peculiar to this district is the *kālā* or *jatrā* performances, a form of *Dashāvatāraṣ*–the folk-ballet of Konkan. They are usually staged on festive and *jatrā* days, the season starting from *Tripuri Paurṇimā*, the full-moon day of *Kārtik*. and continuing till the advent of rainy season. On Malvan side the members of *dahīkālā* or *jatrā* parties locally known as *Dashāntris* generally belong to the *Devaḷi* caste. They associate into a dramatic club and give performances on invitation at fixed places on fixed days. On Sangameshwar side such actors are known as *kheḷe*. The performance starts at about 10 p.m. and it is conventional that it must terminate at day-break with the breaking of *haṇḍī* – a pot full of curds, milk, etc.

The stage is an improvised one – a simple *māndav* (booth) about 12′ × 16′ and 10′ high enclosed on three sides by *jhāmps* (plaited cocoanut-leaves) often serves the purpose. A bench or two at the

back accommodates the *mṛdang* and harmonium players, and when required serves the purpose of 'throne', 'bed-stead', etc. A curtain is often held by two persons and is removed as the actors enter. The *sutradhār* who conducts the play takes his stand at one corner of the stage leaving the major portion of the stage at the disposal of the actors.

The programme begins with the invocation of Gaṇapati, the *vighnahartā* (remover of obstacles) and Saraswati, the goddess of learning. In this conventional first entry Gaṇapati is accompanied by Ṛddhi-Siddhis, his two consorts, who help him manage his big trunk and the two extra hands. He dances for a while in a zigzag way with shuffling steps, is offered worship and in return gives his blessings and retires. Then enters Saraswati with the peacock as her carrier. She gives a 'peacock dance' and retires. And now follows the demon Sankāsura grotesquely dressed in a black cone-shaped mask, his eyebrows, nose and lips painted white. He is supposed to be a Brāhman by caste, and while enacting a Brāhmanic religious routine creates much fun by his mimicries and mockeries. Then enters god Kṛṣṇa with whom Sankāsura enters into a wordy tussle about 'caste hierarchy' which develops into a fight. Sankāsura meets his 'death' at the hands of Kṛṣṇa. The curtain is held and Sankāsura disappears; Kṛṣṇa gives a dance and retires.

Now starts the main item of the show, the enacting of a folk-opera. The theme is a *puranic* subject such as *Ushā-swapna, Draupadi-Vastraharaṇa, Kicakavadha, Kaurav-Pāṇḍav Yuddha,* etc. There is neither a script nor much of a 'plot'. Everyone is acquainted with the 'story' and the plot unfolds through extempore 'dialogues' and 'speeches', the individual actor using his freedom with skill and resourcefulness. What cannot be enacted is described in versified narrations by the *sūtradhāra*. The play has to last till daybreak and the time gaps are bridged over by interludes of songs and fights. The fights have to be danced over the stage and when there is a 'kill' the curtain is held for the 'dead' to walk away from the stage. During the play one of the *Ṛddhi-Siddhis* moves in the audience with the *devāci-tral̤i* or *ārati*. Individuals put their contribution in the dish and bow. The play concludes with the ceremony of 'breaking the *hanḍi* at the hands of the village 'honourables' (*gāṅvkaris*).

Folk-dances.*

Various types of dancing activities generally of the nature of folk-dances are current among the people the occasion for them usually being the various religious festivals occuring mainly in the months of *Srāvana, Bhādrapad and Phālgun*. The festivals of Gokul̤āṣṭami and Dahikālā celebrated on the dark eight of *Srāvana* and on the day following are occasions for the display of *goph* and *tipri*, and *kālā* and *Gommdā* dances. Srāvaṇa also gives an occasion for *Maṅgal̤āgaur* dances which are danced exclusively by females the most popular and prominent among them being the *phugaḍi*. On the bright fourth of

* The section is mainly based on *Folk-dance of Maharashtra* by Dr. A. [Agarkar (1950).

CHAPTER 3.
—
The people and their culture.

Bhādrapad and after, come the *Ganesh* and *Gauri* festivals. In towns public *Gaṇapati* festival may be celebrated by *meḷā* (troupe of boys, girls or of both) performances and demonstrations of physical feats, singing and amateur artistic individual dancing. But the *Gauri* festival which is enthusiastically observed by the agricultural classes is spent in singing, dancing and merry-making. Dancers pay house to house visits, as there must be a dance performance known as *Gauri-Gaṇapaticā nāca* before the goddess in each house. Women have their own dances and songs but they do not dance while men are dancing. *Hoḷi* or *Śimgā* festival coming in the month of *Phālguna* is the occasion for the popular display of *Sankāsur* and *Rādhā* dances in the south and *Naktā* and *Kaṭkheḷ* dances in the north of Ratnagiri.

Ṭipri and *Goph*.

The *Ṭipri* and *Goph*, an indigenous folk-dance which is a variety of stick-dancing widely known all over India, is displayed by specially trained troupes of boys generally on the occasion of *Gokuḷāṣṭamī* day. The *ṭipri* is a stick of resonant wood 14 to 18 inches in length and about an inch in diameter at the broad end; *goph* consists of long strips of cloth 4 to 5 yards in length of different colours, generally red and white, attached to a pole or a suspended disc. Each dancer has a pair of *ṭipris* one in each hand, and one strip from the *goph*, in addition, in the left one when they perform the *goph* dance. The *tablā*, a pair of cymbals and a harmonium whenever available are usual accompaniments. The performers sometimes have *cāḷs* (chains of jingles) tied to their ankles. Excepting the addition of *goph*, there is no material difference in the movements and formation of the two dances, but the inclusion of *goph* does add to the spectacular effect of the dance. There are generally four, six or eight pairs participating in the dance.

The dancers stand in circle in pairs, the two in the pair facing each other. They begin by hitting the sticks slowly and rhythmically, gradually increasing their speed of movements until the dance ends in a crescendo of percussive clicks of wood. The sound of the beating *ṭipris* supplants the rhythm of the *tablā*, cymbals harmonium and jingles. The *ṭipris* may be hit in four basic ways. The dancer may hit his own stick, hit his partner's stick, allow his own stick to be hit, or skip a beat by suspending hitting the sticks. These few simple procedures when combined with dance movements, bends and twists, turns and geometrical hitting patterns among the group provide a charming variety of sound and movement patterns. If the *ṭipri* is combined with the goph the dance consists of plaiting the *goph* ribbons into a braid and then unwinding it with a reverse pattern of steps. Nowadays this dance has been introduced in primary and secondary schools as a part of physical education for boys and girls.

Kālā dance.

The dance coming on the day next to *Gokuḷāṣṭamī* is known as *kālā* or *dahikālā* or *dahihaṇḍī* when in imitation of the early life spent by Lord Kṛṣṇa in the cowherd settlement at *Gokuḷ* a *haṇḍī*

The people and their culture.

containing curds milk etc. is ceremonially broken. The dancers or the so-called cowherd comrades of Śrīkṛṣna dressed in a mere loin-cloth and wielding clubs or lathis in their hands start in procession to visit different localities to break the *haṇḍis* that they may come across. They fall in a line more or less straight and are linked in a chain either by clasping palms or hooking arms with their neighbours. A *khālu* band[1] provides the music. They dance the distance keeping the right foot forward and stepping with the same foot, while the left foot is dragged to make up the necessary space. The leader, and at times a few others occasionally whirl in the air the wooden clubs in their hands, singing out a marching song with the refrain' '*Govindā, ālā re ālā*.' On arriving underneath a hanging *haṇḍi*,[2] the dancers form into a pyramidical formation of two or three tiers, a smart lad climbes the top tier grabs the *haṇḍi*, and breaks it. While the *haṇḍi* is being broken the whole formation is and has to be steady, but as soon as it is over, all chmb down without order and the formation collapses. The participants place their arms on the shoulders of neighbours and slide and stamp their feet on the ground. Everyone tries to get under the water or buttermilk that is being poured over them and cries aloud '*Govindā, Govindā*' making all types of frenzied and irregular movements in display of the *kālā* or *Govindā* dance.

Maṅgḷāgaur dances.

Among Brāhmans and other advanced classes, women after their marriage have to worship for the period of five years on each Tuesday of Śrāvaṇa the goddess Pārvati commonly known as Maṅgḷāgaur. The *pujā* ceremony and the feast is over by noon and by evening after light refreshments the real entertainment programme starts. It consists of a variety of folk-dances and lasts even till day-break, if the participants are enthusiastic. The whole show is purely a concern of females, and *phugaḍis* and other folk-dances displayed at the time can be called dances of the females.

Phugaḍi.

There are a number of dances performed on this occasion, the most popular and prominent being the *phugaḍi*. It is played generally by two but the number may even be up to eight if there is enough room. The dance movements of the pair are simple : The girls stand facing each other, keep their feet together with a distance of two or three inches between the toes, cross arms keeping them straight with a clasp of each other's palms, balance the body backward, and each time stepping the right foot a few inches to the right and sliding the left along with it start an anti-clockwise movement. As the footwork quickens, the movement gathers in tempo till the dancers get swung in a whirl. This goes on till one or both feel exhausted. There are many varieties of *phugaḍi*.. In *dand-phugaḍi*, instead of clasping palms

---

[1] Consisting at least of three musicians to play on the *sanai*, the *dhol* and the *tinki*.

[2] An earthen pot hung in a temple or a prominent place at a respectable height generally beyond the reach of a man standing on the shoulder of another. It is decorated with a garland, and its usual contents are curds, milk, buttermilk, *pohā*, turmeric, cocoanut, plantains and some coins.

CHAPTER 3. — The people and their culture.

they catch hold of the arms. In another, one stands while the other squats. In a variety known as *jātē*, one is standing while the other keeps only the left or right toes on the ground, the other foot being placed on the opposite thigh. In *bas-phugaḍī* which is danced singly the dancer squats on toes and moves her legs forward alternately. With only one hand joined in a clasp the variety is known as *ekhātāci phugaḍi*.

Group *phugaḍis* are danced by girls forming a ring either by crossing arms and catching palms of the neighbour on either side or by putting their arms on the shoulders of their neighbours. They move in a circle by taking short sideward steps generally in an anti-clockwise direction. Group *phugaḍi* in a way though spectacular is cumbrous and lacks the vigour marked in a partnered *phugaḍi*.

Besides *phugaḍis* a variety of allied dance forms are displayed at a *Maṅgḷāgaur*, e.g. *nāca-go-ghumā*, a group dance danced by a girl known as *ghumā** standing with a *sūp* (winnowing fan) in the centre of a circle formed by other girls. The *ghumā*, as she puts forth her complaints to the company alternately raises and lowers the *sūp* before her face and also alternately raises her feet slightly changing direction each time; girls standing around her catch hold of the palms of their neighbours and move round taking short sideward steps keeping to the time of the song. *Komḃḍā* is a sort of memetic dance, performed individually or in a group. The dancers place one knee over the other and keeping the palms interlocked on the upper knee go on jumping imitating the movements of a *komḃḍā* (cock). Other dances performed at the time of *Maṅgḷāgaur* celebration are *pingā*, *zimmā*, *sāḷuṅki sāḷuṅki* or *pagaḍāphu*, *kis-bai-kis*, *kathot-kaṇā* and many others.

Gauricā nāca.

The dance performed in honour of Gauri and Gaṇapati during the Gaṇeśa festival is known as *Gauri-Gaṇapaticā nāca* and is enthusiastically participated in by the Kuṇbi agriculturists of Ratnagiri district. *Mṛdaṅg* and a pair of *ṭāḷs* or of cymbals are the only instruments used and the dancers tie chain of jingles at their ankles.

The usual formation is a circular one. The *mṛdaṅg*-player as well as the cymbal-player generally squat on the ground in the centre and the dancers (six or more) in their starting position stand one behind the other to maintain the circular form intact. At the time of Gauri immersion they go dancing along the road in a line, arm in arm, *mṛdaṅg* and cymbal-players leading.

At the start the dancers stand facing the centre with the left foot forward and the right foot to the rear, the distance between the feet being hardly a foot. Turning slightly to the right, they take a step forward in an anti-clockwise direction with the right foot, the left one following. In this movement they move along the circumference, each following the one in front rather closely.

* A girl who feigns unwillingness to join the dance.

The movement of the right hand is prominent, which is swung forward nearly to the level of one's shoulder while the left one is for the most time idle. After a line of a song is sung by the leader and repeated in chorus by the group, they take a left-about turn, then a right-about turn with hands swung overhead in accordance with the direction of the turn. The other dominating movement, which even a casual observer does not miss is the sliding of a foot, usually the right one, forward and backward, while the dancers are in a squatting position. The tempo of the movements at the start keeping time with the song is rather slow. The first line of the song is slowly sung by the leader twice and then repeated in chorus with the same tempo. This done twice the speed of the steps as well as the song is doubled, the song this time being sung and repeated in the same manner as before. Then the dancers retrace two steps back facing the same direction and, taking a step forward, resume the slow tempo

Rādhā dance.

In *Simgā* days at many a place in south of the district are found *Rādhā* troupes giving display of a musical dance at every house, and collecting *posta.* These troupes comprise the central figure of the *Rādhā*, a dancer boy dressed in an upper class woman's attire, and the leader singer who generally uses *ṭāḷs*. The *Rādhā* has *cāḷs* tied at her ankle. Persons to play on *dholki, daph, tuntuṇē* and at times *viṇā,* and the Sankāsura are the other accompanists. In some places, Sankāsura dances with Rādhā, while in some places the leader of the group comes forward and dances with Rādhā when occasion arises. In the starting movements the Rādhā starts shuffling her feet forward, the jingling sounds of the *cāḷs* perfectly harmonizing with other accompaniments. As she advances bit by bit, the right hand is fully stretched forward and left one is bent at the elbow, the palms describing gracefully circuits to resemble the movements of a creeper caused by a gentle breeze. After a few inches of space have thus been covered, the dancer rotates round herself from the right to the left, and with a light graceful jump brings this initial movement to a close. The dancer and the leader-singer then sing a line which is repeated in chorus by the group. There is no foot-work while the two sing, but when the line is repeated in chorus, the dancer tries to convey the contents by movements and expressions.

Kāṭkhel.

The *kāṭkheḷ* (*kāṭhī* – a stick ; *kheḷ* – dance) dance is a stick dance popularly played during *Holi* festival by Kuṇbīs of north Ratnagiri. The traditional dress of the performers consists of Marāṭhā type turban secured over the head with a red-bordered *dhoti* tied cross-wise its loose ends fluttering over the back ; a shirt with long sleeves covers the trunk, and across the chest a *dhoti* with red border is crossed and knotted at the back ; a *sāḍī* of red or blue border is wrapped by the dancer over his *dhoti* or *pyjama* with a number of folds round the waist so that the thighs are entirely covered with the border of the *sāḍī*. They fasten chains of jingles at their ankles. In their hands they hold a pair of *ṭipris* and a bunch of white fibres,

which sway with the movements of the *ṭipris* and add to the grace of the dance. A *mṛdaṅg* and a pair of cymbals are the only instruments used.

The formation, as a rule, is circular, members standing in pairs and facing each other. Only in *dāvaṇ* and *bhilkavaḍā* they move generally, in an anti-clockwise direction, keeping time with a pair of *ṭipris* held in the hands. Some of the movements, though more vigorous and quick, resemble those of the *ṭipri* dance. The beginning is always in a slow tempo and it has to be so, since they are moving back to back. When a line is being repeated, the speed increases and to facilitate free movement they take a zigzag course. They once strike the *ṭipris* against each other and then strike them with those of the advancing member. At times they squat and turn about keeping time with their strikes to the beat of the drum. In *dāvaṇ* they move in a figure eight; in *bhilkavaḍā* they pass under one another, the arms being chained.

Diṇḍī dance.

Some dances are danced more out of religious ecstasy and fervour than to give expression to an aesthetic feeling. The *diṇḍī* dance which devotees or *bhajanis* of the *Vārkarī* cult engage in while going to a temple of Viṭhobā or taking part in a religious procession belongs to this kind. The participants generally fall in two rows facing one another, the *mṛdang* player and the *viṇā* player who lead the dance being in between the rows. They click in rhythmic beat the *ṭāḷs* held in their hands as they chant in chorus the names of Jnyānobā and Tukārām or pick up the refrain of the *bhajana* given out by the leader-singer. And as they click and sing they dance in steady measured steps, all the while advancing towards the destination.

Mahalakṣmī dance.

Another dance of the ecstatic kind is the Mahālakṣmī dance better known as *ghāgar phunkṇē* and is performed only at the time of Mahālakṣmī worship.* During night as a part of the worship ritual each girl (worshipper) holds a *ghāgar* (a round water-pot narrow at the neck), in her hands, makes a rhythmic musical sound by blowing across the mouth of the *ghāgar* and starts dancing before goddess. During the dance one of the girls starts blowing and dancing with greater animation than the rest, and presently swings her hands and is seized with the power of the goddess. Others stop dancing and the 'possessed' dancer is plied with questions about the 'unknown' by her friends which the goddess in her is believed to answer.

---

* On the eighth of the bright half of *Āśvina*, during the first five years of her wedding, the young wife, as may be the family custom has to worship the goddess Mahālakṣmī.

CHAPTER 3.

—

The people and their culture.

Games and other recreations.

A FEATURE TO BE NOTED IN THE DISTRICT IS THAT BECAUSE of its peculiar geographical environment the population in villages is sparsely situated with the result that regular getting together of the people in the village for recreational activities is well-nigh impossible. The games, sports and such entertainments popular in this region are either sedentary or occasional. The occasional activities are undertaken only at the time of celebrations of certain local festivals. *Ākhāḍās* or *tālims* (wrestling houses) are a rarity in the district; a few are found in the northern part Sometimes we find marriage processions of well-to-do non-Brahmans accompanied by *ākhāḍās* — a party of persons skilled in performing feats of physical skill, strength and stamina. They give at prominent spots in the way performances of sword-dance, *lāṭhi* fighting, etc. *Lezim* dance is indulged in and is only discontinued when other feats are being performed. Training for these performances is usually to be had now-a-days in *tālims* at Bombay, and not locally.

Major Games.

The recreational activities and games in Primary and Secondary Schools, and Colleges in the district are practically the same as in any other district. However, *Hu-tu-tu* and *Laṅgḍi* of the major Indian games, and Volley Ball of the Western games are the most popular. Of the other major Indian games *Khokho, Circle Khokho* are played in schools and *Lagoryā* and *Viṭī-dāṇḍū* outside the school. These games when popularly played are played with regional variations. Standardised forms, however, have been arrived at by institutions like the *Akhila Mahārāshtra Śārīrika Śikṣaṇa Maṇḍaḷa* which are now widely adopted and strictly observed when the games are played in contested matches.

Minor Games.

There are various kinds of games played by non school going children; some are given below.

Toys.

Nursery games.

In the play activities of infancy and early childhood toys predominate over games. *Khuḷkhuḷā* — multicoloured rattles, and toys that make a variety of sound — pipes, whistles, drums and tamborines, easily fascinate babies. These are followed by their keen rival, the Doll, and then come the 'toys on wheels'. Children tripping about the house with a *panguḷa-gāḍa* or romping about dragging behind them a toy-vehicle attached to a short string is a common sight.

Imitative games.

Games of the 'imitative' or 'make-believe' type, wherein various roles like that of cartmen, horse-driver, music-player, palanquin-bearer, etc., are enacted with fidelity to real life are a particular attraction of early childhood. These games are played with no set rules but with a good team spirit, every player having a part to perform. *Ghoḍā-Ghoḍā* (horse and rider) is played in several ways. Usually two children stand, one (driver) behind the other (horse) and both run forward, the driver holding the 'horse' by its garment. *Pālkhi* (palanquin) is usually played by three. The two facing each other carry the third who sits on the arm-square formed by the two gripping each other at the elbow. *Āg-gāḍī* (train) is just a queue of children

each holding the garment of the one in front of him. *Śivā-śivi* — the simple chase and tag, *golānṭi* — somersault, *jhoke* — swinging, are the simple games played at this age. *Gāryā-gāryā-bhiṅgoryā* is a game of dressing and doll-marriage are favourite recreations of girls at this age. *Bhātukali* is the game of house-keeping often played enthusiastically by girls with secondary roles given to boys.

A number of chase and tag games are played by children between the age of five and nine. *Sāṅkhaḷici-Śivāśivi* is a more complex game than the ordinary tag. *Āndhaḷi kośimbir* (blind man's bluff), *lapanḍāv* (hide and seek) *un-un-sāvli, sāt-ṭaḷyā* are the different kinds of tag games enthusiastically played at this age. Games of *goṭyā* (marbles), *bhoṁvrā* (top), *pataṅga* (kite) have a great attraction for boys between the age of six and sixteen. Playing at *kāji* (cashew-nut) wherein boys contest in winning cashew-nuts put in a line by hitting them from a distance with a *bhaṭṭā* (big and heavy cashew-nut) is a popular game in the south of the district.

Team games.

A number of team-games are played with verve and much hubbub by non-school children in later childhood and adolescence; of these some are described below.

Abā-dābi : A soft ball either of rags or rubber is tossed up in air for all to catch and the player who succeeds tries to hit with the ball any other player who tries to dodge. The game can continue indefinitely.

Cenḍū-phaḷi : It is played with a soft ball of rags or rubber and a small stick which to start with the game, is suspended on two stones. There may be 24 or more players who form into teams of equal strength. After fixing the order of players the two teams stand at about eight feet from the suspended stick on the two sides. A player throws the ball to knock the stick off the stones and the other side tries to catch the stick and the ball 'on the fly'. If either is caught the play is equal and none is out. If the ball without its knocking the stick is caught the bowler is out.

Ghoḍyās cenḍū mār (hitting the horse with a ball) : The game is played with a soft ball among fifteen to twenty players. Four or five players choosing to be the 'horse' file within a circle each holding the front player's waist, the last player forming the tail and the front one the head of the horse. The rest of the players stand outside the circle each at a uniform distance from the other and try to hit the 'tail' of the horse with the ball. The horse faces the hitters, dodges, even catches the ball and throws it back and tries to save the tail from being hit. If the ball strikes the tail the horse is out and the game starts again with a fresh batch of five forming the horse.

Gup-cup-tobā : Players sit in a circle facing in, and the "It" runs round the circle with a *tobā* (a well-knotted piece of cloth) which he places unnoticed behind one of the players. If the player is alert,

he immediately picks up the *tobā* and becomes the "It" and runs round the circle to place the *tobā* behind some other player. If the "It" completes one round and reaches behind the player without the latter noticing the *tobā*, he picks up the *tobā* and with it beats and chases the player till he takes one round and resumes his seat. In that case, the same "It" continues to run round and tries to keep the *tobā* behind some other player.

Kurghoḍi or *Ghoḍeswār* (horse-riders), is played by two teams consisting of equal number of boys, one team acting as *ghoḍe* (horses) and the other as *swārs* (riders), the choice being decided by toss. The 'horses' stand in a circle facing in and each 'rider' rides a 'horse'. The leader rider closes his horse's eyes by one hand and holds some fingers of the other hand before the horse and asks their number. If the horse tells the correct number, all the riders get down and the game is resumed, the teams exchanging their parts.

Kokalyā is a game of crude hockey played by two teams trying to push into a 'goal' or just beyond a line a hard ball with sticks bent at the striking end. There is a demarcating mid-line and a 'goal' or a boundary marked on each side.

Sar-sar-kāṭhi is a group-game played by boys who stand in a line and each bending forward pushes through his legs a yard-long stick held in his hand as far back as possible. The player whose 'throw' was the shortest is called *cor* (thief) and he has to get to the place where his stick fell, pick it up, and stand facing the starting line with the stick held in his hand raised above his head. A player strikes at the stick so that it falls away at a distance to the back side of the *cor* and the rest of the players go on pushing the stick with the sticks in their hands. The *cor* pursues them. To avoid being tagged the player places the stick in his hand on a stone as the *cor* gets near. Any one tagged with the stick in his hand becomes the new *cor* and the game starts afresh.

Sūrapārambi: The game is popularly played by cowherds. From a circle drawn on the ground under a tree a player throws away a stick as distant as he could. By the time the 'thief' runs for the stick and restores it back in the circle all climb the tree The game lies in the players from the tree jumping or climbing down the tree and touching the stick before they are tagged by the thief.

Vāgh-Bakarī (the tiger and the lambs) : One of the players is made the tiger (*vāgha*), another the shepherd (*dhangar*) and the rest are lambs (*bakarī*). The lambs line up behind the shepherd, each holding the one in front by the waist. The shepherd handles a knotted piece of cloth for the protection of his lambs, and in spite of all the beating he gets the tiger makes repeated efforts till he captures all the lambs.

CHAPTER 3. — The people and their culture. CHRISTIANS. Population.

CHRISTIANS are returned, according to 1951-census as numbering 14,637 (*m.* 6,544; *f.* 8,093) and they form 0·85 per cent. of the district population. According to the censuses for the years 1911, 1921 and 1931, they numbered 11,529 (*m.* 5,542; *f.* 5,987), 11,904 (*m.* 5,678; *f.* 6,226) and 13,189 (*m.* 6,188; *f.* 7,001) or 0·81, 0·87 and 0·86 per cent. respectively. Their tractwise distribution over the district in 1951 is as follows:

Rural Tracts: 8,857 (*m.* 3,829; *f.* 5,028)—Sawantwadi and Vengurla, 4,435 (*m.* 1,982; *f.* 2,483); Kankavli and Kudal, 2,953 (*m.* 1,270; *f.* 1,683); Deogad and Malvan, 1,141 (*m.* 447; *f.* 694); Rajapur and Lanje, 47 (*m.* 18; *f.* 29); Ratnagiri and Sangameshwar, 16 (*m.* 6; *f.* 10); Khed and Chiplun, 19 (*m.* 17; *f.* 2); Dapoli, Mandangad and Guhagar, 216 (*m.* 89; *f.* 127).

Urban Tracts: 5,780 (*m.* 2,715; *f.* 3,065)-Rajapur, Ratnagiri and Sangameshwar, 200 (*m.* 127; *f.* 73); Chiplun and Khed, 11 (*m.* 6; *f.* 5); Savantwadi, Vengurla and Malvan, 5,569 (*m.* 2,582; *f.* 2,987).

Calling themselves Christis and known by the people of the district as Firingis or Portuguese or more popularly as *Kiristānvs*, some of them may have a strain of Portuguese blood but the bulk are local people converted in mass to Christianity during the time of Portuguese rule. Except for a few Deccani Christians stationed at Vengurla in association with the American Mission activities there, the rest are Konkani Roman Catholics. These, though they have Christian names and surnames still keep to the old distinction of caste, calling themselves Christian Kuṇbis, Bhaṇḍāris or Koḷis, and marrying only among members of their own caste. The names in common use among men, are Andru, Anton, Bābal, Bābu, Dammik, David, Enās, Forsu, Francis, Chābru, Kaitān, Kistu, Luis, Montio, Nikol, Norbet, Pāwlu, Pedru, Roki, Rumās, Siman, Victor, and Zilu; and among women, Anamaria, Anjelia, Arkan, Enasin, Esabel, Fātimā, Filomen, Konsu, Kristālin, Lushi, Mariyan, Mary, Natālin, Rita, Romana and Rosin. They have European surnames such as Gomes, D'sa, D'souza, Fernandez, Rodrigues and Saldhana which their ancestors are said to have received from those who stood sponsors to them at the time of baptism. Some of them bear local surnames such as Ādelkar, Ajagaonkar, Dābhoḷkar, Dāboskar, Māḍkar, Mānjarekar, Mālvaṇkar, Nandoskar, Phanasekar and Reḍkar.

Language.

In the southern part of the district the home tongue of the community is *Konkaṇī* a dialect of *Marāṭhī* which leans more on the side of *Mālvaṇi* than that used in Goa. Their literates are well conversant with *Marāṭhī* which has now become the home tongue of those residing in the northern part.

Houses.

The well-to-do live in substantial one-storied houses. The walls are either of mud or of laterite, plastered both outside and inside. The floor is cowdunged and polished by rubbing with stones. The roofs are tiled either with country or Mangalore tiles and as a rule

the ceilings are of wood. The houses are divided into a veranda, a hall, one or more bed-rooms, a dining room, and a cook-room. In some houses the cook-room is a separate building, near which stands the bath-room and the cow-shed. The better class families generally have tables, chairs, couches, bedsteads, chests of drawers, and stools, brass lamps, cups, saucers, plates, glassware and cutlery, boxes and trunks and some pictures of the Virgin and Child and of Popes. A middle class family has generally one or two benches, one or two stools, with perhaps a single chair, cots, cups and saucers and a few metal and earthen vessels. A poor family has perhaps a small wooden stool, some mats, and some earthen and metal vessels.

Dress.

Among the well-to-do the men dress in European fashion, and the poor generally in a jacket and short trousers of coloured cotton. Like the local Hindus they may wear a head scarf, a shoulder cloth thrown loosely over the body and a waist-cloth girt round the loins.

Almost all the women dress in local Hindu fashion, except that they wear a peculiar neck amulet of red stone beads strung together and joined in front by a green coloured stone edged with gold, called *fora*. They are fond of the red and blue checked Belgaum cloth. Among the poorer classes the robe (*sāri*) is worn tight and does not fall below the knee; the upper classes wear it full falling close to the ankle, some wearing European petticoats and jackets. Unmarried girls do not draw one end of the robe over the upper part of the body, and married women wear the upper end over the right shoulder like most Hindus, and is either held in the right hand or tucked into the waistband on the left side. When they go to the church women cover themselves with a white sheet-like cotton robe that hangs from the head to the ankle, and is worn with considerable grace falling from the head in free outward curves, showing the face and rich necklace, and caught with the hand at the waist, and from there falling straight to the feet. The bodice is loose, full-backed and long-sleeved, and is tied in front under the bosom. For ordinary wear it is of cotton and for special occasions of silk or brocade. Women generally wear gold ear-rings shaped like cockle shells, silver necklaces in double loops, and some glass bangles round each wrist. On high days they wear gold-headed hair pins, looped gold necklaces, earrings, bracelets, bangles and finger rings.

Though there are few rich families a considerable number are well-to-do. They are a quiet-orderly class, hard-working, and, except for their fondness for drink, frugal. The upper classes who are educated are employed in Bombay as clerks and shopmen and some are Government servants. Most of the poorer classes are husbandmen showing great skill in growing vegetables and breeding pigs, ducks, turkeys and hens. Unlike the Goanese Christians, they pride themselves on never taking household service with Europeans. Most are

CHAPTER 3.
—
The people and their culture.

illiterate, on par with the Hindus who follow the same callings. Besides their hereditary calling[1], Christians freely follow any profession except tanning and shoemaking, washing, and pot-making.

Religious Organisation.

The Konkani Christians have their religious rites and ceremonies regulated by the canon and liturgical laws of Roman Catholics the world over. But for actual government and ministration, the Roman Catholics in the district are under the jurisdiction of the Patriarch of Goa who has under him Vicars general and under a Vicar general are priests in charge of parish churches, smaller churches attached to parish churches, and chapels[2]. Parish priests are chosen from all classes except the very low such as Mahars, converts, and illegitimate children. Some of them are the sons of Bāman (Christian), landholders, sufficiently well-to-do to give their children a good education. Others come from Goa or from Bombay. All know Marāṭhī (Konkaṇī) and Latin, and all have some knowledge of Portuguese and a few of English. They are educated at Goa and ordained at the age of twenty-four by the Archbishop of Goa or his delegate, and they remain celebate for their life. They almost always live in houses adjoining or attached to their churches, and where the villages are small one priest often serves two or three churches. They dress in long black cassock or cassock-like coat, and some of them wear the biretta or four-cornered cap. Besides the monthly salaries they receive from the Goa Government, and the offertories they collect at prayer meetings, they get from the parishioners, christening wedding and burial fees.

The objects of particular devotion of Konkani Roman Catholics are the Blessed Virgin Mary, St. Anne, St. Francis Xavier, St. Antonio, St. Sebastian, and St. Joseph, whose image, with the image of Christ they keep in their houses and pray to. Each family has one of these saints as a patron. A small figure of the crucified Christ and of the patron saint are reverentially placed either on an altar or in a niche in the wall of the house. The more religious among them pray five times a day, on rising, at midday, at sunset, shortly after sunset, and on retiring to rest.

---

1. The old caste distinctions still persist to some extent among the Ratnagiri Christians. The *Bāmans* who are mostly fair and of the middle height with well-cut features are mostly landlords (*Bhāṭkars*) and well-paid Government servants. Some enter the church. The *Renars* (*Bhanḍāris*) comprising most of the Christian population were once palm-juice drawers. They are also carpenters, tailors, masons, fitters, mechanics, drivers, husbandmen, and labourers. The *Gāvaḍes* (*Marāṭhās*) who are a well-built and sturdy class love more to take to independant professions than to service. The *Cārades* who are found in small number in Sawantwadi, have most of the males serving in towns. The *Dentalis* and the *Khāpris* (*Siddis*) are backward and illiterate classes, found in small numbers and mainly living as labourers.

2 Churches are situated at Sawantwadi, Vengurla, Malvan, Ajgaon, Masure, Chinder, and smaller churches and chapels at Shiroda, Bhiravne, Redi, Mangaon, Devabag, Aronda, Amboli, Bhedashi, Satarda, Kasal, Salgaon, Dandoli, Ratnagiri, Dapoli and Harnai.

Every large settlement has a church and small settlements have chapels which are visited by a priest during November and December and April and May. During his visit the priest celebrates the feast of the patron saint which lasts for nine days and is followed by vespers on the tenth. All the leading churches have brotherhoods both of men and women who wear a special cloak and tippet. Each member pays a yearly subscription which gets credited to form a church fund managed by the members. All members abstain from flesh on all Fridays and Saturdays in Lent; they confess their sins in the ear of the priest and receive the communion at least once a year, and are bound to attend church every Sunday and close holiday.

Many of the lower orders of Christians share the local beliefs in omens, lucky days, and magic, and may worship Hindu gods and Musalman saints But because of the strong disapproval shown by the priest of such practices they have now grown much less usual or at least much more carefully concealed.

Customs.

As the Konkani Christians of Ratnagiri district include many classes it is difficult to give an account of their customs which applies to all. The following details are believed to represent correctly the social and religious observances at present in use among the bulk of Ratnagiri Christians on occasion of births, marriages and deaths.

Birth.

Young wives go for the first confinement to their parents who bear all the expenses. In the seventh month of a woman's first pregnancy her husband or his parents or nearest kin, present the woman with a new *sāri* in which she is dressed, decked with ornaments and flowers, and along with some young women from the neighbourhood fed on the choicest dishes. As soon as the child is born the mother is given a dose of *kālijirem* (bitter cummin seed), *jirem* (cummin seed). black pepper, turmeric, garlic and raw ginger. On the third or sixth night the child is kept still and watched, but no *satti* or sixth day ceremony is performed except among the Gavads and other low classes

Baptism.

The rite of Baptism is that laid down by the Roman Catholic Church. On the eighth day the child is taken to the church to be baptised. It is carried by an elderly woman of the house accompanied by other members and two persons termed god-parents who answer in the name of the child the questions put by the priest to the child. Before the party enter the church they are met by the priest in surplice cope and stole. He calls the child by a name which is told him either by the parents or sponsors. In order to drive out the evil spirit and make it give place to the Holy Ghost, the priest thrice breathes upon the face of the child, saying *Exi ab eo*, 'Go out of him.' He then makes the sign of the cross upon the child's forehead and breast, and lays his right hand upon its head repeating verses. Laying a little salt in the child's mouth he again makes the sign of the cross upon its forehead, and repeats verses. After this the priest lays the end of the stole upon the body of the child and admits it into the church, saying, 'Enter into the temple of God that thou mayest have part with Christ into life everlasting: Amen.'

When they have entered the church the priest, jointly with the sponsors, recites the Apostles' Creed and the Lord's Prayer. He then wets the point of his thumb with spittle from his mouth and with it touches the child's ears and nostrils and says in Latin in a loud voice, 'Thou too fly away, O Satan.' He then questions the sponsors, and anoints the child with a little holy oil at the middle of the collar-bone and at the end of the spine in the form of a cross. The crown of the child's head is next anointed with holy oil and the priest then takes water in a small vessel and pours it thrice on the child's head, saying, 'I baptise thee in the name of the Father, and the Son, and of the Holy Ghost.' A piece of white linen is laid on the child's head, and the priest lights a candle and sets it in the child's right hand where it is held by the godfather and godmother, and repeating verses closes the rite by saying, 'Go in peace and the Lord be with you : Amen.' The baptism fee varies from Re. 1 to Rs. 5. On returning home the party is treated to sweetmeats or to dinner. After dinner the eldest woman in the house lifts the child and all in turn bless it, dropping into its hands copper or silver coins which are made into ornaments for its use. When all have given their blessings, the child is laid in the cradle, and rocked by women who, when they rock, call down on the child all manner of blessings. If an infant is sick it may at any time be baptised at its parents' house, either by the priest or by some intelligent member of the family who has learnt the formula. After recovery the child is taken to church to have the holy oil applied. On the fortieth day some parents take the child to church, and the mother also goes and is purified. On that day or after an interval of two, three or five months, the young mother goes back to her husband's house taking the child and some presents of sweet rice-flour balls, cocoanuts, boiled gram, and clothes. When the child is a year or two old the boy's hair is cut or shaved and the girl's ears are pierced with some ceremony. In both cases neighbour's children are feasted.

Marriage.

Although the community has adopted many new customs after their conversion to Christianity, some of their old customs are still apparent in their marriage and other allied ceremonies. Generally boys and girls are married after the ages of 20 and 14 years respectively. In olden days marriages were prearranged by the parents without any previous acquaintanceship between the couple. Now-a-days, most marriages take place after the parties concerned have been acquainted with each other at least for some time, and have agreed to it; others, though rare, are love marriages. Peculiar Hindu customs persist, such as the dowry system, seeking a girl from one's own caste, etc. The tendency among young people is to ignore such customs. For the purpose of marriage, people are regarded as belonging to such principal divisions as Bāman, Renar, Gāvaḍe, Cāraḍe, etc. which to some extent still persist to be endogamous.

Among Roman Catholics (and other Christians) certain types of relatives come under prohibitive degree for the purpose of marriage. If marriage between such relatives is found necessary, dispensation or permission may be granted by the higher church authorities. Widow

Marriage.

marriage is not forbidden, but rare; divorce is unknown.* When a match has been privately arranged, the boy's relations or friends go by appointment to the girl's house, and in the presence of a witness or two are formally asked if they accept the girl on certain conditions as to the amount of dowry, etc. Among the well-to-do a written contract is drawn up and two copies are made one for each party. Rings or other articles of jewellery are also exchanged between the boy and the girl, the boy's sister or sister-in-law decks the girl's hair with flowers and the girl shows the ring or the articles presented by the boy to the assembled guests. Refreshments and sweetmeats are served and if the boy's party have come from a distance, this is sometimes followed by a dinner or supper. After this betrothal which is known as *mudi* ceremony, marriage may take place in a few weeks. Soon after preliminaries are settled it is usual for the bride and bridegroom accompanied by friends and relations to start from their houses for the parish church where the priest verifies the contract by asking both the parties whether they have agreed to the marriage. When both say they have agreed, the priest announces in open church that the parties are going to marry, and that if any one has any objection to the match he should come forward and state it. This announcement is made on three successive Sundays. On any convenient day after the third announcement the marriage is celebrated in the parish church. At the houses both of the girl and the boy two sheds called *mātavs* are built, a guest shed in front of the house and a cooking-shed behind. In the cooking-shed a band of married women prepare earthen hearths, singing Konkani songs. When the hearths are ready sweetmeats or cocoa-kernel and molasses are handed round. This is called *roshio ghalcho.* Three or four days before the wedding the lower classes send two or more youths from house to house with country music asking people to the marriage. The upper classes send written invitations and do not employ country music. Besides the formal invitation the mother and the father or a kinsman of the bride and bridegroom go to their particular friends or relations to compliment them. To friends and relations who live at a great distance invitations are sent in time to enable them to attend. A day or two before the wedding, particular friends and relations send presents of vegetables, fowls, pigs, liquors and sweetmeats. During this time married female neighbours grind curry-stuffs, rice-flour and other articles for the wedding, singing Konkani songs as they work. This is called *dalop*. On the evening of the second day before the marriage day the bridegroom and the bride sit with one or two men and maids in their houses and are rubbed with cocoanut milk while Konkani songs are sung. When the rubbing is over they are bathed. This is called *roslaucho*. On the morning of the day before the wedding the bride and bridegroom, with the bride's maids and the best men, attend mass and receive the communion in their parish church. In the evening a dinner is given to the poor with the object of satisfying the souls of the deceased members of the family. This

* For the Christians, marriage is a permanent irrevocable contract between a man and woman. In the Christian conception of marriage, there is no room for divorce as this understanding is clearly implicit in the promises which the man and wife make during their nuptials.

CHAPTER 8. — The people and their culture. *Marriage.*

is called *almachem jevan* or the dinner for departed souls. On the wedding day the guests appear at the appointed time. The bridegroom dressed in a full Europeon suit—a black felt hat, an evening frock coat, and light waistcoat and trousers, and accompanied by his best man generally walks to the church in the company of his friends and relatives. Before leaving his house he stands with his hands clapsed on his chest in front of the saint's altar or niche and the elder members of the household and the elder guests walk up to him and give him their blessing, waving their right hands in the form of the Cross before his clapsed hands. The bride is dressed in a sāri either of silk or of cotton of any shade but black, with silk or lace border. It is worn hanging like a petticoat from the hips to the ankles. The upper part of her body is covered by a tight fitting bodice. Over the bodice she wears the white church cloak, which serves both for cloak and for veil. Her head, wrists, neck and fingers are almost covered with gold ornaments which the poor borrow from the well-to-do. The head, besides being ornamented with gold, is decked with a profusion of flowers, jasmines, Christmas roses and yellow amaranths. Thus attired and surrounded by the bridesmaids, the bride, like the bridegroom with bowed head receives in her house her friend's blessings. In her left hand she holds a square handkerchief with which she repeatedly hides her face. When the bride has received the good wishes of her friends her party starts in procession with band music to the church. The bridegroom leaves his house about the same time. When the two parties have met in the church, the priest, dressed in a surplice and white stole and accompanied by at least one clerk to carry the book and a vessel of holy water, and by two or three witnesses, asks the bridegroom who stands at the right of the bride, 'Wilt thou take A. B. for thy lawful wife according to the rites of our Holy Mother, the Church?' The bridegroom answers 'I will'. Then the priest puts the same question to the bride, and she answers in the same words as the bridegroom. The priest then joins the right hands of the couple, saying 'I join you in matrimony in the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Ghost: Amen'. While he says this he sprinkles their hands with holy water. This is done in the presence of witnesses whose names are entered in the marriage register. When this is done the bridegroom places upon the book gold and silver, which are presents to be delivered into the hands of the bride, and also a ring which the priest blesses with holy water and returns. The bridegroom then puts the ring on the third finger of the bride's left hand saying meanwhile, 'With this ring I thee wed, this gold I thee give, with my body I thee worship, and with all my worldly goods I thee endow'. The ceremony is generally completed between eight and ten in the morning. When it is over the bridegroom and the bride walk hand in hand to the middle of the chancel of the church, where they remain kneeling and sitting during a mass which was begun soon after the marriage ceremony. After reading the Gospel the priest delivers a sermon in Konkani on the responsibilities of married life, and at the close of the mass he blesses the newly married couple. When the ceremony

Marriage.

is over the company form in procession, sometimes led by musicians, the bride and bridegroom coming next in a carriage or walking holding hands or arms in arm and the wedding guests following. When they reach the marriage booth married women of the bridegroom's family stand outside and sing merry songs in Konkaṇī, the bride's people praising the bridegroom, while inside the booth a band of friends sing the bride's praises. This lasts for about half an hour. When it is over the father of the bridegroom asks all guests to come into the booth and the Laudate or Praise is sung. On entering the booth the bride is taken into the house and the bridegroom and best men sit on a sofa in the booth. Or, as among the upper classes, the newly married couple stands at the entrance of the booth to receive their friends' congratulations. Each friend in turn throws a few flower leaves or sprinkles some drops of rose water on their heads, shaking hands, or if they are near relations kissing or embracing, and, if they have them to give, making presents. Refreshments and sweetmeats are handed round, first to the bridegroom and bride and then to the guests. The bride and bridegroom are then led into the house, and the bride's party pass the time till dinner in singing, joking and making merry. Meanwhile some female relations and friends of the bridegroom, with the leave of the bride's father and mother, enter the house, the bridegroom's elder sister carrying a tray containing presents for the bride, a rich *sārī* and bodice, a gold lucky necklace (*maṅgalsūtra* or *samras*) and other articles. On this, the bride is led to the room where the family altar or prayer place is situated and where the bridegroom party is waiting. The mother of the bridegroom if her husband is living, or any other near kinswoman, ties the lucky necklace, which is either wholly of gold with a pendant gold cross, or strings of black glass beads with a pendant gold figure of the Infant Jesus, or simple strings of small glass beads with a gold bead in the middle. The bride is next decked with flowers and the gold ornaments which came with the sārī, and flowers are handed to the married women who are present. The bride then dresses in the new sārī and bodice discarding her old (maiden) dress. Soon after, the bridegroom walks into the house and stands by the side of the bride, and all present say prayers and sing the Litany of the Blessed Virgin. The bridegroom then returns to the booth leading the bride by the hand and is seated with her on a sofa which is set apart for them. The bride sits on the bridegroom's left, the best men on his right and the chief bridesmaid to the left of the bride. When they are seated the bride's parents, the bride's god-parents and next the other kinsfolk make presents of clothes, ornaments and other articles to the couple. After this presents-giving or *Besanu* ceremony is over the wedding feast is served. Among the well-to-do the wedding dinner may be laid and served in European fashion; the poorer families sit on mats and eat off leaf-plates. It consists either simply of vegetables, curries, rice and fried cakes, or in addition pork, mutton, fowl, fish, bread and sweet gruel. When everything is served the host calls to his guests '*Devāchiā nāvān amrut karā*, i.e. in god's name feed. When dinner is over they sing, dance and make merry. About midnight, the guests return to their homes, except

CHAPTER 3.
—
The people and their culture.

Marriage.

those who are specially asked to stay over night. Next day after dinner the bridegroom and bride get ready to start for the bridegroom's house. All the elders, both men and women bless them as they did on the wedding day, and drop in their hands gold rings or silver coins. Then, with all the guests, they start in procession for the bridegroom's, and, when they reach the house, they bow before the family altar and receive blessings from the elders of the house. The parents of the bridegroom present the bride with a *sāri* and the sponsors and the relations of the bridegroom give presents to the couple. A dinner, not differing from the dinner given in the bride's booth, is then served. After dinner a ceremony by which the father of the bride makes over his daughter to the parents of the bridegroom with a request to treat her as their own child takes place. She is then led into the house and presented to the family patron-saint to whom she offers short prayer. In the afternoon of the fifth day the couple again returns to the bride's and remains there for five days and, on the sixth, comes back to the bridegroom's, and for about fifteen days the young couple pay visits to their neighbours, friends and relations. After this they either go together or the bride goes alone to her father's house on all great holidays during the first year, and every year during the life time of the bride's parents on the occasion of the parish feast. In widow marriages there is no ceremonial except the simple religious rite in the church.

Death and Funeral.

When sickness takes a fatal turn, the parish priest is sent for, who comes to the house to hear the dying man confess and to give him the communion. The priest anoints him with holy oil, and sits beside him praying and repeating verses. When the sick man is dead the church bell is tolled that the parish may know and offer prayers for his soul. The beadle (*Chamdor*) goes from house to house telling of the death and the time of the funeral, which generally takes place within twenty-four hours. Arrangements are made with the priest as to the style of the funeral and the position of the grave.* On hearing of the death neighbours come in, the body is washed and decently dressed in church clothes and kept in the hall either on a couch or on a mat spread on the ground over a clean white sheet. At the time named by the beadle most of the villagers attend. The dead's hands are tied together across the chest and a small crucifix is placed in them. At the head is set a larger crucifix with a pair of burning candles. The well-to-do lay the body in coffin and the poor carry it in the church bier. The coffins of the unmarried are lined with white, and the bodies of children under seven are decked with flowers. Six or more candles are set round the coffin or round the body if there is no coffin, and lighted when the priest begins to read or chant the prayers. When the last prayer in finished, if the dead has left a widow she takes off her lucky necklace, earrings and glass bangles, the signs of married life. If the relatives of the dead

* Graves are of two classes: Temporary graves which are liable to be used again, and permanent graves. where the dead can never be disturbed. The latter are costlier than the former, the prices varying in different parishes according to the wealth of the people.

cannot pay for the priest's attendance at the grave the priest, in white surplice and black stole, comes to the church at the time fixed for the burial and reads the service. In other cases, accompanied by members of the church brotherhood, with a cross and two candlesticks, the priest goes to the house of the dead dressed in a black cope besides the surplice and stole. The members of the brotherhood wear white cloaks over their holiday clothes and red or green tippets. At the house of mourning the priest sings and blesses the body. Then the body is lifted either in the coffin, or if there is no coffin in the bier, and brought from the house to the church. The coffin or the bier is covered with a black cloth. The funeral party goes in procession, the cross and candlestick bearers leading and then follow members of the brotherhood in pairs about three yards apart. Behind them friends and visitors walk in regular order; then comes the body carried by four men. As they move along, the church bell tolls and the priests and choristers chant hymns. At the church or at the grave the service is read with fewer or more prayers, according to the arrangement made with the priest. When the body or coffin is lowered in the grave the priest first puts a few handfuls of earth over it and then the mourners follow. When the service is over all return to the house of mourning, and the guest condole with the members of the family, holding their hands or embracing them if they are near relations. On the day of death there is seldom any cooking in the house of mourning as relatives and friends generally supply the mourners with cooked food. On the seventh day all the mourners with their friends and relations go to the church and a solemn office and mass are sung for the repose of the soul of the dead, and all persons who attend are given breakfast and dinner which do not differ from those given on festive occasions. The office and mass are repeated on the thirteenth day and at the end of the year, and in some cases every year. An ordinary mass is performed on every death-day during the lifetime of the next-of-kin, and a general commemoration of the dead is held on All Saints' Day on the second of November by the second and later generations. Mourning continues for a year during which no marriage or other joyous ceremony is performed. On the first death-day, friends and relations are asked to attend the service at the church and also feasted at home.

Muslims.
Population.

MUSLIMS according to the 1951-Census, are returned as numbering 100,351 (*m.* 43,083; *f.* 60,268) in the district of Ratnagiri or 6·08 per cent. of the population. In 1872 the percentage was 7·32 and the same according to the Censuses of 1911, 1921 and 1931 was 6·4, 6·3 and 6·98 respectively. Their tract-wise distribution over the district is as follows :—

Rural Tracts: 83,560 (*m.* 34,031; *f.* 49,529)—Sawantwadi and Vengurla, 1,530 (*m.* 725; *f.* 805); Kankavli and Kudal, 4,160 (*m.* 1,809; *f.* 2,351); Deogad and Malvan, 4,310 (*m.* 1,965; *f.* 2,345), Rajapur and Lanje, 7,054 (*m.* 3,124; *f.* 3,930); Ratnagiri and Sangameshwar, 23,290 (*m.* 9,243; *f.* 14,047); Khed and Chiplun, 17,717 (*m.* 7,161; *f.* 10,556); Dapoli, Mandangad and Guhagar, 25,499 (*m.* 10,004, *f.* 15,495).

CHAPTER 3. — The people and their culture.

Urban Tracts : 19,791 (*m*. 9,052; *f*. 10,739) — Rajapur, Ratnagiri and Sangameshwar, 11,931 (*m*. 5,602; *f*. 6,329); Chiplun and Khed, 4,565 (*m*. 1,935; *f*. 2,630); Sawantwadi, Vengurla and Malvan, 3,295 (*m*. 1,515; *f*. 1,780).

Arabs and Persians.

As in the other coastal districts of Western India, the Ratnagiri Muslim population has a strong strain of foreign blood, both Arab and Persian. The foreign element probably existed before the time of the prophet Muhammad (570-632).[1] And in the spread of Muslim power, between the seventh and tenth centuries, as sailors, merchants, and soldiers of fortune, Arabs came to the west coast of India in great numbers.[2] From the accounts of Suliman, the earliest Arab traveller, it would seem that about the middle of the ninth century, the Balharas who ruled the Konkan were very friendly to the Arabs. The people of the country said that if their kings reigned and lived for a long time it was solely due to the favour shown to the Arabs. Among all the kings there was no one so partial to Arabs as the Balhara, and his subjects followed his example.[3] Early numbers in the tenth century, Arabs are mentioned as settled in large numbers in the Konkan towns, married to the women of the country, and living under their own laws and religion.[4] During the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, when the lands of Ratnagiri formed part of the possessions of the Bahamani and Bijāpur kings, a fresh impulse was given to immigration, both from the increased importance of Dabhol and other places of trade, and from the demand for Arab and Persian soldiers. Even under the Marāṭhās the services of Arab seamen were still in demand.[5] No record has been traced of any attempt to force Islam on the people of the district, and from the tolerant character of the Bijāpur kings,[6] it seems probable that, except a few who yielded to the persuasion of missionaries, to the temptation of grants of land, or to the oppression of Aurangzeb, Ratnagiri Muslims are not descended from purely Hindu converts.

Koṅkaṇis.

Besides the Arabs and Persians who from time to time came as soldiers, traders, and sailors, the character of many Muslim villagers near Chipḷuṇ and along the shores of the Bāṇkoṭ creek, point to some

---

1. A trace of the early Arab sailors is found in *Jazira*, or the island, the latter part of the name Melizeigara, apparently applied by Ptolemy (15) and the Periplus (247) to the town and island of Malvan or Melundi.

2. Many high Ratnagiri families, though at present following different professions, are distinguished by Arabic surnames, *Kazi*, judge; *Fakih*, lawyer; *Muallam*, professor; *Khatib*, preacher; *Mukri*, elegy singer; and *Hafiz*, Qoran reciter.

3. Elliot's History, L. 4. The Balharas were the Rajputs of Malkhet near Hyderabad. Compare Mas'udi's Prairies d'Or, 1. 382.

4. Masudi (913), Prairies d'Or, II, 86.

5. In 1683, the Company's merchantman President was, off Sangameshwar, attacked by two ships and four grabs. The crew were Arabs who said they were in Sambhaji's pay. Orme's History. Frag. 120.

6. During the reigns of Yusuf Adilshah (1489-1510) and of Ibrāhim Adilshah II (1590-1626) no man's religion was interfered with. Ferishta, II, 128.

CHAPTER 3.

The people and their culture.

more general Arab settlement. These people, the fair Arab-featured Konkani Muslims of Bombay, generally known among Muslims by the term Kufis, seem, as the name shows, to have come to India from the Euphrates valley, and to belong to the same wave of Arab settlers who in Gujarati are known as *Naiatas*, and in Kanara as *Navaits*. The traditions of the people and the accounts of many Muslim historians agree that the bulk of them fled to India from the Euphrates valley about the year 700 (82 A. H.) to escape massacre at the hands of the fierce governor Hajjaj bin Yusuf.[1]

Jamātis.

Besides the regular classification into the four main tribes, Syeds, Shaikhs, Mughals, and Paṭhāṇs,[2] Ratnagiri Muslims are locally divided into two classes, Jamātis or members of the community, and Dāldīs coast fishers, with whom the Jamatis do not intermarry.[3] Though Jamātis have much sameness in appearance and manners, there is among them a special class whose headquarters are along the Baṇkoṭ creek and on the Dapoli coast. The Baṇkoṭ Muslims are rather a slim but well-made, fair, and good-featured class, the men shaving the head and wearing short, rather scanty, beards. Their home tongue is Marāṭhī, but most of them know Urdu. Except a few well-to-do landholders they live in second class houses. Some of the villagers used to wear some time back a white Brāhman-like turban and the Hindu coat and waistcloth. At present they generally wear a Turkish fez, a *sherwani* and loose trousers and patent leather shoes. The women wear the Hindu dress, and when they travel, a large white sheet-like overrobe. Widows dress in white. Landholders, sailors, and some of the school teachers and Government servants, are on the whole well-to-do. The calling of boatmen in Bombay harbour has, of late, greatly suffered from the competition of steam launches; but many find good employment as engineers and workers in machinery. Of Sunnis of the Shafai school few know the Qoran or are careful to say their prayers. On every Thursday, either in a mosque, or in a house built for the purpose, the Konkanis meet together, and sing hymns to the praise of God and the Prophet. This done, tea is drunk, and sweetmeats distributed. Except that at marriages a dough lamp, filled with clarified butter, is by the women lit, carried to river, pond or well, and left there, and that for five Thursdays after a death, dinners are given to relations and

---

1. Details of Hajjaj the 'terror and scourge' of his country are given in Mas'udi's Prairies d'Or, V. 193-400. (*See* also Khulasat-ul-Akhbar, and Tarikh-i-Tabari in Prince's Muhammedan History, 455-460). According to the general story these men were at first natives of Madina, from which, were driven by the persecution of Hajjaj. In addition to the original body of settlers, it seems probable that fresh immigrants arrived in the tenth century (923-926) to escape the ravages of the Karmatian insurgents who destroyed Basra and Kufa and enslaved part of the people (D'Herbelot's Bibliotheque Orientale, I. 509; Dabistan, II, 421), and in the thirteenth century (1258), when Halaku Khan the Tartar captured all the cities of the Euphrates valley, put the reigning Khalifah to death, and massacred 160,000 of the inhabitants.

2. About 1/16 are Syeds, 12/16 Shaikhs, and 3/16 Moghals and Pathans.

3. Perhaps *daldi* or thrown, in the sense of outcast.

CHAPTER 3. — The people and their culture.

friends, their customs do not differ from those of other Muslims.[1] They marry only among themselves, marriage with any other caste being considered a disgrace. Of late, some families have given their daughters to Bombay Arabs. A number of them in Bombay and a small number in Ratnagiri and at other places know English, and teach their children Marathi and English.

Dáldis.

DALDIS, found chiefly in the Ratnagiri sub-division, have the tradition that their forefathers came in ships from across the East. Their appearance and position among the Muslims of the district would seem to make it probable that they are partly converted Hindus, probably Koḷīs, and partly the descendants of the immigrant Muslims and slave girls.[2] The men are tall, strong, and stoutly built with pleasant but irregular faces; most of the women are swarthy, but a few are fair and well featured. They speak Marāṭhī in their homes and many understand and speak Hindustani. Their houses are almost all thatched huts of the second class. Except that a few of the men wear tight trousers, they dress, both men and women, in Hindu fashion. Some are sailors and cultivators, and some go to Bombay in search of work; others make and set nets and ropes of all sorts, and most are fishermen differing little from Hindus in their way of fishing. They hold a low position among the Muslims of the district. They are hard working, and though many are in debt, as a class they are fairly well-to-do. Sunnis in religion they marry only among themselves and obey the Qazi Very few of them send their children to school.

Most of the rest of the Muslims are in appearance somewhat less sturdy and rough-featured than the Daldis, and darker and not so foreign looking as the Bāṇkoṭ men. The home tongue of all is Marāṭhī, but most of the well-to-do know Urdu. The bulk of them are towns people living in second class houses, generally on rice and pulse. Most of them are able to afford dry fish, but few, except on holidays, eat animal food. The men generally wear a skull cap, the Muslim coat, and the waistcloth, only the well-to-do wearing trousers. Their women dress in Hindu fashion, in the large Marathi robe and bodice. Neither hardworking nor thrifty, they are orderly, clean, and hospitable. Living chiefly as grain-dealers, cultivators, and sailors, they are not as a class well-to-do. In religion almost all are Sunnis following the Qazi. Few of them send their children to school; but many children go to the Maulvi to learn the Qoran. Few have risen to high positions.

1. Maulvi Syed Ahmad Sahib Gulshanabadi.

2. According to Major Jervis (Statistics of Western India, 14, 15), they are a race of people descended from the first Arabian colonists who settled on the western coast in the seventh or eighth century and correspond with the Maplas of Malabar.

PART IV—ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION

CHAPTER 4–GENERAL ECONOMIC SURVEY

CHAPTER 4.

General Economic Survey.

INTRODUCTION.

IN THE CHAPTERS THAT FOLLOW AN ATTEMPT IS MADE TO GIVE A FAIRLY DETAILED ACCOUNT of the main features of economic life in Ratnagiri district. Subjects that have assumed importance in the context of modern development like agriculture, large-scale enterprise, labour and capital relations, transport and communications, trade and commerce, other miscellaneous occupations, and finance, are discussed at length. An attempt is also made to outline the standard of life that is enjoyed by the people in both the rural and urban areas of the district. Economic potentialities of the district in the light of its natural resources and advantages are briefly indicated in the concluding chapter of the section. This chapter would serve as an introduction to the more detailed study which follows in subsequent chapters.

POPULATION.

The 1951 census was the first census operation after Independence. An outstanding difference between this census and the previous ones was the shift of emphasis from the earlier classification of population based on religion, castes and communities to functional categories. The total population of Ratnagiri district was 17,11,964 in 1951, as compared to 9,97,090 in 1891 which shows 72 per cent. increase over the period of 70 years. Of this total number, 15,53,858, are the residents of rural areas while 1,58,106 constitute the urban populace. Of the total number of occupied persons, viz. 3,86,451, more than 2,71,000 followed agriculture as their main occupation. This clearly brings out the predominantly rural pattern of the district economy. Another note-worthy feature having a sociological significance is the numerical superiority of the female over the male population. Of the total population 9,42,329 are females and 7,69,635 males. As the census figures of 1881 reveal, during the last 70 years, this tendency appears to have gained momentum. (1881 census : Females 5,24,037, Males 4,73,053) This tendency is contrary to the general trend in the population pattern of the whole of India, where the ratio of males to females comes to about 1,000 : 947 (1957).

The process of urbanisation has been distinctly slow. Towns with a population of more than 25,000 are very few. Practically no town worth the name has sprung up during the last seventy years. The literacy standard of the district is not very high. It is less than

CHAPTER 4.

General Economic Survey.

20 per cent. i.e. 3,03,551 persons out of the total population of 17,11,964 are literate. The percentage of literacy is much more amongst the males than amongst females (2,20,847 males as against 82,704 females are literate). From this point of view, the productive potentialities and the employment pattern assume importance. The following figure would give a broad picture of the same. Of the total number of 11,89,662 persons depending upon agriculture as their means of livelihood, 2,71,533 were self-supporting, 6,94,465 non-earning dependents and 2,23,664 earning dependents. Of the total number of 5,22,302 persons relying upon non-agricultural occupations such as industry, trade, transport, professions and liberal arts for their maintenance, 1,14,918, were self-supporting 3,56,055 non-earning dependents and 51,329 earning dependents. These figures bring out the following facts : nearly five out of every six persons live in the rural areas ; nearly five out of every six self-supporting persons live in rural areas ; nearly four out of every five self-supporting persons who live in rural areas are agriculturists ; more than half the net produce of the district is contributed by agriculture, animal husbandry and allied activities ; and the approximate proportion of persons following industry, professions and liberal arts, trade and transport to agriculture (10) is 4, 3 and 3 respectively. This reveals the backward nature of the economy of the district. The occupational pattern has of course undergone some change during the last seventy years but most of the increase in population has been absorbed in agriculture.

AGRICULTURE.
Cultivated area.

Of the total area of nearly 32 lakhs of acres in 1955-56, the cultivated area in the Ratnagiri district covered 30·3 per cent. and cultivable waste, 7,46,323 acres. The area under forest was 46,958 acres in 1956, which compares very unfavourably with the year 1885 when forests accounted for nearly 100 thousand acres. The average annual rainfall is 122″, varying from 88″ near the sea coast to over 153″ in the hilly areas of the interior. Agriculture, in the district, could be regarded as a gamble in rains as can be seen from the fact that out of the total cropped area of nine lakhs of acres, hardly 3·8 per cent. was under irrigation. Most of the irrigation is by wells and private canals. There is only one Government canal in Malvan taluka, irrigating an area of about 627 acres. The peculiar geographical set up of the district makes it imperative to lay more stress upon minor irrigation schemes like bunds, *bandharas*, *nallas* etc. Though there are numerous streams and water courses there are a few usable rivers. The whole system is naturally ill suited for major irrigation projects.

Food crops.

The main food crops are rice and ragi among cereals ; *Kulith* (horse-gram) and black-gram among pulses. Mango and cashew-nut constitute the popular and important fruit crops. Food crops cover more than 73 per cent. of the total cropped area. Food production, however, is inadequate and cannot meet the total demand for district. The district has to depend for food supply, for about eight months in a year, on the neighbouring districts of Belgaum, Kolhapur and

CHAPTER 4.

General Economic Survey.

Kolaba, in addition to the supplies received via Bombay by sea. On an average 55,000 tons of foodgrains are imported annually. The acreage under rice in 1955-56 was 3,14,909 (i.e. 3·5 per cent. of the total cropped area) and under ragi 1,48,816 (i.e. 27 per cent. of the area under cereals). Though the district is chiefly a producer of food crops, non-food crops occupied nearly 27 per cent. of the gross cropped area in 1955-56, of which oil seeds accounted for nearly 30,627 acres. With proper research, resulting in better development, in regard to the production of oil seeds, the prospects for this crop, with an ever increasing demand for oil-seeds and for their products in the world market, are bright. Similarly, the rising demand for mangoes, jack fruit (*phanas*) and cashew-nuts in the foreign market may lead to increase in their production.

Forests.

Forests do not seem to occupy the same place of importance in the economy of the district at present as they did in the past. From the economic point of view, the cocoa-palm tree, and timber species such as teak, *shisav* and *ain*, are by far the most important.

Pressure of population.

Compared with 1882, the pressure of population on land has increased, as is evidenced by the fact that whereas in 1882, the area per head of the population and the area per head of population engaged in agriculture were 1·5360 acres and 2·1760 acres respectively, the corresponding figures for 1950-51 being ·46 acres and ·66 acres. During this period, the total population increased from 9,97,090 to 17,11,964, whereas the number of persons following agriculture as their main occupation increased from 6,89,837 to 11,89,662.

Distribution of Land.

Statistics of distribution of land (both *Khalsa* and *Inam*) are available for 6,18,995 acres for the year 1952-53. The size of an average holding has declined from 10 acres in 1878-79 to 5·1 acres in 1952-53. More than 75 per cent. of the holders held an average area of 1·5 acres. There were only five holders whose average holdings exceeded 1,200 acres. This was mainly due to the phenomenal rise in the percentage of the number of small holders. A holding in Ratnagiri district is divided into several fragments which make it in many cases uneconomic. A survey of holdings in the district in 1947 shows the average size of a fragment to be 0·75 acres, and the number of fragments per holding at 6·92. The Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947, is being implemented to consolidate uneconomic fragments and improve the present position.

Prior to 1949, there existed a congeries of *inams*, *watans* and non-rayatwari tenures. There were 952 villages under *khoti* tenure and 273 villages of the former State of Sawantwadi under *kauli* and *katuban* tenures. These intermediaries have been abolished in pursuance of the general policy laid down by the Government of India in this regard. Most of the land is now held under rayatwari tenure. The relations between landlords and tenants have also under-

CHAPTER 4. — General Economic Survey.

gone significant changes, the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act of 1948 being a major step in the direction. It was enacted to give security of tenure to tenants and to fix the maximum rate of rent. A valuable right in favour of tenants was conferred in the form of the privilege of purchasing his holding from the landlord under certain conditions. Since 1948 many amendments were made to the Act, the most important being the one made in 1955 with a view to (i) vesting occupancy rights in lands on the tiller of the soil, (ii) redistributing land by the imposition of ceilings on individual holdings and (iii) providing facility to small holders to acquire lands.

Agricultural tools.

The field tools and implements used generally by agriculturists continue to be of the old and indigenous type, though some modern improved implements have been introduced. However, the high cost and the limited use of improved implements make their introduction possible rather at a slow rate. Iron ploughs are slowly replacing the indigenous wooden ones. Pumps worked by electric motors and oil engines are being used in certain parts of the district. Mechanisation of agricultural operations has not proceeded to such extent as to diminish the importance of livestock which continues to be a valuable possession of every farmer. Efforts are being made to improve the breed of cattle and sheep in the experimental farms. conducted by some private institutions.

Agricultural wages in rural areas were usually being paid both in cash and in kind till recently. However, a tendency has now developed to pay wages in cash. Female labour is paid at half the rate of wages paid to male labour. Child labour is paid still lower.

There are seasons when rainfall is abundant, but occasionally the region is hit by severe failure of monsoon resulting in famines and causing considerable hardship to the populace. Better facilities of transport will help to minimize the hardships to some extent.

INDUSTRIES.

Industrially, Ratnagiri is backward. This backwardness is reflected in the number of persons engaged in industrial occupation which was returned as 1,12,000 in 1951. The mountainous nature of the country, lack of adequate and easy communications, absence of intensive research and sub-soil mineral resources, and absence of electrical power—all these factors have combined to make the economy of the district almost static for several decades. The census of 1951 returns hardly 423 persons following mining and quarrying as their main occupation. The supply of electric energy was started at places like Ratnagiri, Malvan, Vengurla and Chiplun as late as 1949. Of the total number of persons engaged in industrial occupations, industries such as food-stuffs, textiles, leather and products thereof accounted for nearly 20,383; metals, chemicals and products thereof accounted for nearly 2,089; processing and manufacture not

specified elsewhere accounted for nearly 9,167 and construction and utilities employed nearly 2,036. The rest of the workers were either working dependents or non-working dependents.

Among the cottage industries which work without the use of power, catechu manufacturing, coir, fishing, and salt manufacture deserve a special mention, due to the fact that they keep the farmer busy during the non-agricultural season and supplement his meagre income. No figures regarding the number of persons employed in the cottage industries are available. The industries have been in existence for a long time and are carried on in the traditional way in almost all the parts of the district.

TRADE.

According to the census of 1951, the various trades in the district provided the principal means of livelihood to 61,204 persons, out of a total population of 17,11,964. The self-supporting persons engaged in these trades numbered 13,711 of whom as many as 8,932 came from the rural areas and the rest from the urban areas. In spite of its long coastal line, the district does not possess a suitable port which would facilitate an import-export trade on a much wider scale than one carried on at present. However, traders take advantage wherever possible, of the innumerable creeks that penetrate fairly deep in the region for importing and exporting commodities through the agency of sailing vessels. The trade is patterned to the needs of the population and is generally confined to goods locally produced or imported for consumption in the district. Among the important trade centres could be mentioned Ratnagiri, Malvan, Chiplun and Vengurla, though none of these could be regarded as bustling with commercial activity throughout the year.

The district is primarily dependent on Bombay, both for the sale of its products and for the supply of its day to day needs. During the busy season, the main function of the trade centres consists in importing and distributing the imported articles all over the district. Food-grains and other necessaries of life constitute the chief articles of import. Besides food-grains, all other articles like cloth, sweet oil, medicines, hardware, sugar, gur and chillies are imported. The chief articles of export are mangoes, cocoanuts, betelnuts etc. The volume of import-export trade indicates a very unfavourable position from the economic point of view because imports considerably exceed exports.

In the absence of any big centres of commercial activity, religious fairs play an important part in co-ordinating and harmonising the trade activities of the interior areas of the district. The fairs provide not only an interesting distraction to the general populace but also prove to be a decent financial proposition to the petty traders and merchants. In spite of the fact that the fairs have lost today their original glamour, as many as 118 fairs, the largest number in the whole of the district, were held in Sawantwadi taluka in one year.

CHAPTER 4.
—
General Economic Survey.

Retail shops are located in almost all the wards of the principal towns and they cater to the needs of the localities. The Bombay Shops and Establishment Acts (LXXIX) of 1948 has been applied to all the municipal towns except Rajapur. In 1957, Chiplun had the highest number of retail shops, namely 891 giving employment to nearly 1,291 men and 35 women. The 'Grocery' groups of shops form the largest number; then come cloth and hosiery shops. There are also dealers in foodstuffs, textiles, leather and fuel and other articles of daily consumption.

The most heavy season for commercial activity are the months of April and May, which can be accounted for by the fact that there is naturally an effort to stock all provisions before the advent of monsoon which is quite heavy in all parts of the district.

There are 490 registered dealers in the rural areas, registered under the Bombay Sales Tax Act. The corresponding figure for the urban areas is 254 (1958). These dealers are well distributed over the district. Almost every village has a retail shop. Besides the retail dealers, periodical markets, held at different places satisfy the needs of the people. Pedlars too form a connecting link between rural consumers and traders in towns. The growth of large establishments in towns and increase in the number of shops in rural areas have tended to diminish the number of pedlars and their importance.

The Sales Tax returns for the year 1958 show that there were 744 dealers and their gross turnover came to Rs. 7,59,15,933. This turnover does not represent the turnover of all traders in the district because dealers under the Sales Tax Act are fairly big traders having a turnover of more than Rs. 30,000 a year and therefore a large number of petty traders are excluded from the returns.

The traders and merchants in the district have a few organisations of their own to secure co-operation amongst their members for facing common problems and formulating common policies to safeguard their interest.

FINANCE.

The period of nearly 80 years since the publication of old Ratnagiri Gazetteer in 1880 has seen many changes in the field of finance. Banking institutions of the modern type made their appearance in the national economy at a much later stage. In a backward district like Ratnagiri, they have come into existence in comparatively recent years. In old days only persons who could be termed as bankers were the moneylenders, who dealt in credit but did not generally open deposit accounts. A few traders dealt in bills of exchange. Savings were meagre and most of them were hoarded. Very few investments were made by the people even in Government securities. Persons who had some spare cash were inclined to lend it even though moneylending was not their profession. Loans were granted on the security of gold and silver ornaments. The rate of interest varied between 12 and 14 per cent. Recent legislation for regulating

the business of money-lending has naturally interfered with the freedom of money-lenders. The Money Lenders Act of 1946, imposing various restrictions in respect of the rate of interest, keeping of accounts etc., has led to a fall in the number of money-lenders and the total extent of their operations. Provision for the grant of loans to agriculturists by Government loans was made under two Acts, the Land Improvements Act of 1883 and the Agricultural Lands Act of 1884. The loans sanctioned to cultivators under these two Acts did not, however, amount of substantial figures. It is now proposed to extend to the cultivator all the necessary financial assistance through co-operative bodies.

Besides the farmer, the cottage and small scale industries also attracted Government's attention in pursuance of its development programme for small scale industries. A separate department known as Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries Department was established with a view to granting loans and subsidies to numerous classes of persons, including not only the farmers but also traders, artisans, salary-earners and to small industries like oil-crushing, handlooms, tanning, leather goods etc. The noteworthy point in this financial scheme is that monetary assistance is granted through co-operative societies. The number of these societies and of their members have now considerably increased because of this policy. For example, in 1957-58, the total number of societies registered in the district was 566 with a membership of 80,758. The share capital of all these societies was Rs. 22,15,816 and their reserve fund and other funds were Rs. 14,669. The deposits kept with them and their borrowings from various sources amounted to Rs. 12,05,052. There were various types of societies both agricultural and non-agricultural, single and multi-purpose.

Next agency providing financial assistance is the joint stock banks, which could be regarded as an entirely new factor in the financial field. The Ratnagiri Urban Co-operative Bank Ltd., was the first of its type established at the district headquarters in 1914. The branches of the Bank of Maharashtra Ltd., the Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate Ltd., the Bank of Konkan Ltd.* and the State Bank of India have been opened quite recently. They provide usual banking facilities to the public, besides financing of trade, agriculture and storage and movement of agricultural produce. The State Bank, started in 1956, operates as the agent of the Reserve Bank of India, conducts Government business and affords remittance and exchange facilities to local bankers and the public. There are also eight urban co-operative banks which cater to the needs of the agriculturist. A District Central Co-operative Bank has also been started recently.

The development of modern banking has encouraged the saving and investing habits among the people. However, the general poverty of the region is reflected in the business attracted by the banks in the form of investment by the people in the joint stock

* This is now amalgamated in the Bank of Maharashtra.

CHAPTER 4. — General Economic Survey.

companies. The other agencies to attract savings of the people are the postal savings banks, and schemes like Treasury Saving Deposit Certificates, 15-year Annuity Certificates and 12-year National Savings Certificates, offered by the Central Government. In 1954 Ratnagiri district contributed a sum of Rs. 9 lakhs towards the Small Savings Schemes.

As in banking so also in the field of insurance, the district is making a gradual headway especially after the nationalisation of life insurance business. That quite a good amount of money is being saved in this form can be inferred from the fact that 2,595 policies involving a sum of Rs. 54,53,550 were accepted in 1958.

TRANSPORT.

Like other economic aspects of the region, transport also shares the general backwardness of the district. The topographical conditions of the district are such as to discourage any development of a good system of transport and communications. During the last seventy or eighty years no substantial improvements have taken place in this sphere except in road transport. The mass of wild, rugged hills that surface the region have actually prevented any such improvement. There are no railways nor is it easy to construct them and make them economic. It is, however, now realized that a quick and efficient system of transport and economic progress are interdependent and steps are being taken to consider the feasibility of railway construction in the region. However, in the nature of things, road transport will have to remain the major agency of communication in the district and with the establishment of the State Road Transport Corporation the facilities of road transport have considerably improved. The Bombay-Konkan-Marma Goa-Karwar-Manglore-Cape-Camorin Road (a State highway) runs south throughout the length of the district, a distance of about 212 miles. The total road mileage in the district is 1951 of which 1034 miles are metalled roads and the remainder are unmetalled. The Buildings and Communications Department and the District Local Board look after the repairs and maintenance of these roads covering a mileage of about 357 and 1594 respectively. These roads form a network in the whole of the region. However, the hilly area still prevents the distant parts of the district from being brought within the orbit of modern amenities. In such places the bullock cart provides the only means of transport A considerable number of creeks and seasonal rivers intersect the area but there are few bridges to cross them. At many such places sailing vessels are used in the absence of any other means of transport. In some interior parts of the district water way conveyance provides a lucrative business. As many parts of the district are inundated and submerged under water during the rainy season, the district sometimes loses its contact with the other neighbouring districts.

The latest development in the transport system was the advent of the State Road Transport Corporation. It was in pursuance of the general policy of nationalisation of road transport that the corporation was formed. A separate division was established

in 1950 for the district with Ratnagiri as its headquarters. The Corporation has a number of workshops, repair sheds and garages in the district. The working of the corporation provides safe and comfortable travel to the public.

In the matter of Posts and Telegraphs the district is well served. Besides the chief receiving and distributing head office at Ratnagiri there are sub post-offices and branch offices spread over the talukas of the district. There are telegraph offices and telephone exchanges.

Air transport does not exist in the district. The district also does not possess any All India Radio Station either for broadcasting or relaying purposes.

In the following table are revealed the changes which have taken place in the occupational and livelihood pattern of the district from 1881 to 1951. It is, however, difficult to draw any definite conclusions regarding these changes because the method of classification of population adopted at different censuses is not uniform. Whereas the earlier censuses do not account for the class of working dependents and those following an occupation as a subsidiary to the principal one, the censuses of 1911 and 1921 put together the principal workers, working dependents and the censuses of 1931 and 1951 classify the population into four distinct categories viz. principal workers, working dependents, non-working dependents and subsidiary workers (The census of 1931 however omits the category of non-working dependents from the actual livelihood classification). The censuses of 1901 and 1941 omit these details altogether. Moreover, due to re-adjustments in the boundaries of the districts which have taken place during the last seventy years or so make it difficult to point out the percentage increase in the number of earners in each category and the percentage absorption of the net population increase every ten years in different categories of occupations.

Table No. 1.

Occupation.	1881	1891	1911	1921	1931	1951
Public Force	1,685	90	6,108	5,983	1,019	1,720
Public Administration .	5,530	4,817	10,738	8,430	4,928	4,725
Professions .. .	1,932	6,572	13,457	14,913	5,768	6,306
Domestic Services ..	3,634	12,168	15,661	9,065	7,098	7,604
Agriculture .. .	2,03,334	5,20,041	8,05,511	8,88,988	4,64,916	11,89.662
Industry .. .	32,240	57,026	72,680	62,405	33.857	1,78,080
Trade	1,730	2,676	35,223	43,556	15,611	61,204
Transport	7,467	8,004	32,948	32,843	8,709	47,544
Persons living on owned income.	..	9,585	7,707	5,162	2,862	....
Miscellaneous	21,550	3,329	1,97,064	77,171	2,09,386	2,19,219

CHAPTER 4.
—
General Economic Survey.

The table shows that the district economy is predominantly agricultural and the major share in the production of wealth in the district goes to agriculture. Industrialisation is taking place at a slow rate. The employment pattern in respect of trade and transport indicates an expansion in respect of these activities. The number of earners in the categories of public force and public administration shows a considerable fall. Professions and domestic services seem to have dwindled in importance.

CHAPTER 5—AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

THE DATA COLLECTED DURING THE CENSUS YEARS 1911, 1921 and 1931 cannot be compared directly with each other, nor can it be taken to be representative in all respects in as much as the basis of classification, the method of collection, the scope as well as purview of enquiry have all undergone a significant change during successive census years. However, with a view to studying the changes in the pattern of employment in Ratnagiri district since the beginning of 20th century, it will be worthwhile to take a note of the broad trends as are easily discernible from the data.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

TABLE No. 1.

STATEMENT SHOWING POPULATION AND PRINCIPAL EARNERS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS AGRICULTURAL PURSUITS IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT* DURING 1911, 1921, AND 1931.

	A 1911	B 1921	C 1931	B over A		C over B		C over A	
				+ or —	Percentage	+ or —	Percentage	+ or —	Percentage
(1) Total Population	12,03,638	11,54,244	13,02,527	—49,394	4·1	+1,48,283	12.8	+98,889	8·2
(2) Total Principal Earners	6,10,929	5,42,735	4,66,142	—68,194	11·1	—76,593	1.4	—1,44,787	2·4
(3) Pastures and Agriculture	4,12,423	4,38,822	3,90,395	+26,399	6·4	—48,427	11.0	—22,028	5·3
(4) Ordinary Cultivators	4,95,160	3,70,765	3,81,194	..	..	..	..	..	..
(5) Cultivating Owners	N. A.	1,42,453	37,512	..	..	..	..	..	..
(6) Tenant Cultivators	N. A.	2,41,069	77,907	..	..	..	..	..	..
(7) Stock Raising	14,730	15,480	6,713	..	..	..	..	..	..
(8) Forestry	659	81	5	..	..	..	..	..	..
(9) Farm Servants and Labourers . ..	N. A.	38,244	2,59,609	..	..	..	..	..	..

* Excluding figures for the former Sawantwadi State.

N. A.=Not available.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

The total population of Ratnagiri district decreased by 4·1 per cent. from 12,03,638 in 1911 to 11,54,244 in 1921 which again increased to 13,02,527 in 1931. Population in 1931 represented an increase of 12·8 per cent. over that of 1921 and an increase of 8·2 per cent. compared to that of 1911. Corresponding to the decline in population between 1911 and 1921, the group of 'total principal earners' also registered a decrease of 11·1 per cent. from 6,10,929 to 5,42,735 during the same period. However, number of persons engaged in 'pastures and agriculture' increased by 6·4 per cent. from 4,12,423 in 1911 to 4,38,322 in 1921. The group of principal earners recorded a further decrease of 1·4 per cent. from 5,42,735 in 1921 to 4.66,142 which meant a decrease of 2·4 per cent. when compared to that in 1911. Employment in 'pastures and agriculture' also declined by as much as 11·0 per cent. from 4,38,822 in 1921 to 3,90,395 in 1931. Employment in this group in 1931 showed a decrease of 5·3 per cent. when compared to that in 1911. It will be significant to note here that employment in 'industry' was on the increase during successive census years.

As can be seen from the table No. 1 the decline in the number of 'principal earners' and the fall in the level of employment in the group 'pastures and agriculture' between 1911 and 1931 are spread over the various heads of classification namely 'cultivating owners', 'tenant cultivators', 'stock raising' and 'forestry'. 'Farm servants and labourers' however registered substantial increase from 38,244 in 1921 to 2,59,609 in 1931 which may be explained by two factors: (1) increase in total population between 1921 and 1931 and (2) decrease in other categories of employment as mentioned earlier.

Of the 17,11,964 persons returned as inhabitants of Ratnagiri district according to 1951 census, nearly 69 per cent. followed agriculture as their main occupation. It is not possible to analyse the changes in the structure of agricultural population since the publication of the last Gazetteers (1880) the reasons being, (1) the decennial census figures for the past seventy years are not comparable because of the changes in the methods of enumeration and of occupational classification from census to census and (2) the reconstitution of the district in 1949 consequent upon the merger of the adjoining Sawantwadi State and other territorial adjustments which make the comparison of 1951 returns with those of the preceding years difficult. However a broad indication of the structural changes underlying the population movements can be obtained by analysing the classification of population in all the censuses as rural* which includes persons engaged in agriculture and allied occupations as also those in non-agricultural occupations. In 1951, out of 15,53,858 rural and 1,58,106 urban population, nearly 74 per cent. and 23 per cent. respectively belonged to agricultural classes.

*At every census a population of 5,000 marks the dividing line between a rural and an urban area.

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation.

An area does not remain a rural one indefinitely because any growth in its population would give it an urban background. Hence we cannot consider the growth of rural population in isolation over a period of time. The table below shows the growth of rural and urban population at the past censuses.

TABLE No. 2.

RURAL AND URBAN POPULATION (1881-1951), RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Year.	Total Population.	Rural.		Urban.	
		Number.	Percentage to total population.	Number.	Percentage to total population.
1881 ..	9,97,090	9,40,449	94·4	56,641	5·6
1891 ..	11,05,926	10,36,185	93·6	69,741	6·4
1901 ..	11,67,927	10,91,013	93·4	76,914	6·6
1911 .	12,03,638	11,30,361	93·9	73,277	6·1
1921	11,54,244	10,76,997	93·4	77,247	6·6
1931 .	13,02,527	12,11,376	93·1	91,151	6·9
1941 ..	13,73,466	13,02,586	94·8	70,880	5·2
1951 ..	17,11,964	15,53,858	90·7	1,58,106	9·3

The table reveals that during the period of over last 70 years the proportion of rural to total population has remained more or less unchanged, the magnitude of variation being between 93·1 and 94·8. This gives the district its predominantly rural character.

However the rural-urban ratio varies from taluka to taluka. The following table shows talukawise distribution of rural population in 1951:

TABLE No. 3.

RURAL POPULATION, RATNAGIRI DISTRICT (TALUKAWISE) 1951.

Taluka.	Rural population.		Total population.	Percentage of rural to total population.
	Males.	Females.		
Chiplun .. .	61,424	75,891	1,53,102	89·65
Dapoli	57,009	72,105	1,29,105	100
Deogad ..	43,599	54,319	97,918	100
Guhagar	37,301	50,585	87,886	100
Kankavli .. .	46,438	56,663	1,03,101	100
Khed .. .	53,605	64,770	1,24,861	94·81
Kudal .. .	40,672	47,879	1,01,545	87·20
Lanja	35,121	42,800	77,921	100
Malvan	43,734	56,229	1,29,814	77
Mandangad	21,799	27,157	48,956	100
Rajapur	56,570	71,519	1,46,541	87·41
Ratnagiri	57,710	74,585	1,59,377	82·98
Sangmeshwar	63,508	78,353	1,48,331	95·64
Sawantwadi	49,875	56,261	1,24,291	85·39
Vengurla . ..	25,757	30,680	79,215	71·25

Urban population accounted for nine per cent. in 1951. The density of population was heavy viz. 344 per sq. mile in 1951. Urbanisation is restricted only to a few places like Chiplun, Malvan, Ratnagiri, Vengurla and Sawantwadi which fact could be attributed to their location as trade or taluka centres. The following table shows, the growth of towns in the district during the last seventy years :

TABLE No. 4.

Urban population in Ratnagiri District, 1951.

Town.	Taluka or Peta.	Population in 1881.	Population in 1941.	Population in 1951.	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (—) in 1941 over 1881.	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (—) in 1951 over 1881.
1. Chiplun ..	Chiplun ..	12,065	15,528	15,847	+28.7	+31.3
2. Khed ..	Khed ..	N. A.	5,386	6,477	..	..
3. Kudal ..	Kudal (Peta).	N. A.	4,885	5,852	..	..
4. Nerur ..	Do. ..	N. A.	N. A.	7,142	..	..
5. Malvan ..	Malvan ..	15,565	25,677	29,851	+64.9	+91.7
6. Rajapur ..	Rajapur ..	7,448	7,489	8,023	+.68	+.77
7. Nate ..	Do. .	N. A.	4,986	5,668	..	..
8. Sagave ..	Do. ..	N. A.	3,700	4,761	..	..
9. Ratnagiri ..	Ratnagiri.	12,616	17.904	27,082	+41.9	+114.9
10. Deorukh ..	Sangameshwar.	N. A.	5,303	6,470	..	..
11. Sawantwadi.	Sawantwadi	8,584	10,024	12,451	+16.7	+45.0
12. Ajgaon ..	Do. ..	N. A.	N. A.	5,704	..	..
13. Vengurla ..	Vengurla..	8,947	21,663	22,778	+142.1	+154.6

N. A = Not available.

There were 13 towns in 1951. Of these, however, the towns which are also taluka headquarters, are important while the rest owe their growth to the natural increase of population and promotion of villages to urban category. Chiplun has got an interesting position and illustrates the influence of physical configuration on urbanisation and is also an important trade centre. Ratnagiri is the district headquarters. Malvan and Vengurla are important for their trading activity in cashewnuts.

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.

It will be observed that the rate of growth of these towns is rather slow except in the case of Ratnagiri. Even in the last decade, which was characterised by unprecedented rate of growth of (urban) population all over the country, the rate of increase in the population of these towns has been rather meagre, which was due to the poor response of the surroundings. Trade, industry and communication are in a backward state. Large scale emigration from the district, mainly to Greater Bombay, is also of direct relevance. Of the total population of the district viz. 17,11,964 in 1951, 4,10,999 persons born in Ratnagiri district were enumerated in Greater Bombay Owing to the poverty of the tract, the populace (mostly rural) has always sought employment in factories and offices outside the confines of its home district.

The following tables give the number of persons engaged in agriculture and in various allied occupations :

TABLE No. 5.

Population Engaged in Agriculture, Ratnagiri District (1951).

Live lihood Class.	Self-supporting Persons.		Earning dependents		Non-earning dependents.		Persons following other professions as their main occupation but deriving secondary income from agriculture.	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
I. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents.	1,16,181	32,928	25,874	95,917	1,58,8[illegible]	2,10,6[illegible]	30,498	75,044
II. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents.	80,122	20,898	18,486	76,827	1,05,772	1,49,671	28,267	55,446
III. Cultivating labourers and their dependents,	8,336	6,581	1,493	4,027	8,910	4,927	17,949	44,425
IV. Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents	3,204	2,503	492	806	6,424	12,230	4,209	1,411
Total—All Classes ..	2,17,039	62,900	45,787	1,7[illegible],[illegible]77	2,70,037	4,07,396	80,013	1 76,9[illegible]5

TABLE No. 6.

Population Engaged in Allied Agricultural Occupations, Ratnagiri District (1951).

Occupation.	Employers		Employees		Independent workers.		Total	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
1. Stock raising ..	26	4	435	32	407	116	868	155
2. Rearing of small animals, and insects.	..	..	1	..	3	3	4	3
3. Plantation .	36	10	30	8	214	[illegible]5	2[illegible]	113
4. Forestry and collection of products not elsewhere specified.	8	.	79	1	135	9	222	10
Total—All Classes ..	70	14	545	41	759	220	1,[illegible]74	281

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation

The number of persons following agriculture as their main source of livelihood was 11,89,662 and included self-supporting persons and their dependents, both earning and non-earning. Agriculture also provided a source of supplementary income to 2,57,268 persons. The proportion of owner cultivators is the highest (56 per cent. of agricultural population) ; which, though indicative of a healthy social trend, is not necessarily an index of agricultural prosperity for which besides ownership, factors such as alluvial soil, irrigation facilities etc. are also equally important. The proportion of tenant cultivators was also high (38 per cent.). The proportion of agricultural labourers was very low (just four per cent.) for the simple reason that the number of tenant cultivators was quite large. The proportion of landlords was still smaller (two per cent.). This does not mean that landlordism in Ratnagiri district was not a problem. The high proportion of tenants disproves it. It was due to the fact that the landlords in question had large holdings.

An important point to be noted about livelihood classes is that they are not mutually exclusive; joint means of livelihood are quite common because the income an individual obtains from the cultivation of his own land or from agricultural labour may not be sufficient for his maintenance. This mixed character, however, complicates analysis of figures. For instance, if all the tenants (class II) had held their lands from landlords (class IV) alone, the analysis would have been simple and a landlord-tenant ratio would have indicated the circumstances under which land might be leased out to tenants. But owing to the mixed character of the livelihood classes, this ratio does not convey whether a person belonging to class II holds land from a big landholder (of class IV) who lets out his land to a number of tenants, or from the widow of a small landholder who was obliged to lease out land which her husband used to cultivate personally, or from a person in livelihood class I who found it convenient to lease his excess land to a tenant, or from a person who might not be an agriculturist at all. A high ratio at the most may be said to suggest that the ranks of class IV include landholders with large holdings of land.

The number of persons engaged in occupations allied to agriculture was 1,655 most of whom were independent workers engaged in stock raising (1,023), rearing of small animals and insects (7), plantation industries (393) and forestry (232).

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

RAINFALL.

The following table shows the average rainfall and number of rainy days at the rain gauge stations which are fairly well distributed over the district :—

TABLE No. 7.

RATNAGIRI RAINFALL RETURNS* (IN INCHES).

Station		Approximate distance from the coast (in miles).	Ante-Monsoon	Monsoon	Post-Monsoon	Winter	Total	
			April-May	June-September	October-November	December-March	† No. of rainy days	Rainfall.
Dapoli	..	57	1·32	123·24	4·63	0·24	101·07	129·43
Mandangad	..	14	1·20	141·12	5·77	0·37	106·17	148·55
Khed	..	20	1·22	123·37	7·22	0·20	104·4[illegible]	132·07
Chiplun	..	25	1·76	120·68	8·21	0·40	106·25	139·95
Unbagar	..	C	1·20	96·41	4·69	0·10	94·97	102·49
Deorukh	..	N. A.	1·58	133·93	8·22	0·46	111·66	144·19
Ratnagiri	..	C	1·32	96·48	5·13	0·15	94·85	103·08
Rajapur	..	20	1·34	119·71	6·43	0·24	104·13	127·72
Deogad	..	C	1·81	80·44	5·16	0·29	93·71	87·70
Malvan	..	C	1·93	80·67	4·81	0·26	80·01	87·67
Vengurla	..	C	2·52	100·60	5·56	0·25	100·08	108·98
Kudal	..	N. A.	2·12	113·75	7·07	0·34	104·20	123·28
Sawantwadi	..	N. A.	2·58	141·02	9·24	0·32	112·20	153·16
District Average.			1·69	113·87	6·32	0·20	10[illegible]·60	122·17

*Average of 55 years.
†Average of 35 years.
C On the coast only.
N. A. Not available.

The regional distribution of rainfall is mainly explained by the relief of the land and the direction of the rain bearing winds. The supply of rain to the inland areas is considerably more than to the coastal areas. It becomes heavier or lighter according to the nearness or otherwise of the station to the great Sahyadri range which powerfully attracts the rain clouds. Mandangad is, however, an exception though its distance from the sea is just about 14 miles. The average rainfall recorded by this station appears to be quite high as compared to the averages of Deorukh, Chiplun, Rajapur and Khed which are so near the Sahyadri hills.

Ante-monsoon or "mango" showers occur in April-May. Although the amount of precipitation is small, these showers have great value in so far as the preliminary *kharif* operations are concerned. The south-west monsoon is the main rainy season, commencing by about the middle of June and lasting till the end of

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation.

September. Winter fall, resulting from the retreating monsoon, is almost negligible, which explains why *rabi* cultivation is practised on an insignificant scale. Most of the *rabi* crops are brought to maturity mainly by irrigation.

The length of the rainy season has an important bearing on the agricultural operations and output of the district. In a normal rainy season, there are about 100 rainy days. A substantial portion of which runs to waste because of its extreme concentration during a certain part of the season which reduces the effectiveness of the rainfall commensurately. From the point of view of agriculture, effectiveness of rainfall depends on many factors such as, the normal rainfall, length of the rainy season, occurrence of rain at the right time during the agricultural season, its spacing during the season, nature of the soil, rate of evaporation, etc.

AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

Owing to inadequate irrigation facilities most of the crops are dependent on monsoon. *Kharif* (early monsoon) crops which claimed nearly 99 per cent. of the gross cropped area in 1955-56, are brought to maturity by the rains of south-west monsoon which commences in June and terminates in October. The ante-monsoon showers in the second fortnight of May help the cultivators to proceed with sowing of paddy for its seedling, which is the main crop of this district. *Nagli, kodra* and *varai* are also taken on a substantial scale. Cultivators begin to prepare the soil for transplanting paddy, *nagli,* and *varai* either late in June or early in July. Pulse crops are also taken in this season. Sowing of pluse crops like horsegram (*kulthi*), black gram (*udid*), small fruited dolichos (*chavli*) etc., is done in July i.e., immediately after the transplanting of paddy. Harvesting of paddy commences in the last week of September and is continued till November. Pulses are also harvested either by the end of November or early in December.

Rabi (late monsoon) crops occupied hardly one per cent. of the gross cropped area. The season during which very little rain is received commences from the middle of October and terminates in the middle of February. Paddy and some pulse crops like horsegram (*kulthi*), large fruited dolichos (*wal*) etc. are grown in a few places. They are sown either in November or in December. Paddy cultivation is largely restricted to southern parts where it is taken as an irrigated crop where irrigation facilities are available. It is transplanted in January and harvested some time in April. Pulse crops are taken as dry crops.

SOILS.

The most predominant rock formation of the district is the Konkan laterite, formed from the original trap. It is an argillo-ferrugenous deposit and covers the major portion of the land surface forming undulating plateaus with a general elevation of 200 to 300 feet. Laterisation has taken place under the hot humid conditions. Due to heavy rainfall, the bases have been leached away along with the

silicic acid and hence the resulting rock is acidic in reaction and rich in iron and aluminium oxides with a silica-sesquioxide ratio of less than two. The hydrated iron oxides impart the red colour to the soils. Due to these geological formations the soils of the district are mostly lateritic which are found mixed with trappean soils in the north and shallow soils in the south. Along the coast are the alluviums. There are small patches of salt lands developed near the creeks. The following table gives detailed analysis of the types of soil found in Ratnagiri district :—

TABLE No. 8.

Analysis of the Soils of Ratnagiri District.

	The laterites.		Coastal Alluviums.	Salt lands.
	Mala, Kuryat.	Varkas.	Pulanwat and Garden Soils.	Khar, Khajan.
Colour ..	Red/Yellow	Red/Yellow.	Reddish/Yellowish grey.	Reddish/Yellowish grey.
Depth ..	2' to 6'	½' to 1'	3' to 6'	5' to 10'
Textural class ..	Clay loam	Sandy	Sandy loam to Clayloam	Clayloam to Loam.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Organic matter ..	3—4	1—2	2—3	0·6—2·5
Calcium carbonate ..	Nil.	Nil.	1—10	0—1
Sand ..	10—20	70—80	30—40	20—30
Silt ..	30—60	10—15	30—35	25—40
Clay ..	30—50	8—10	10—25	30—35
Total soluble salts ..	0·02—0·04	Traces.	Traces.	1—3
Organic carbon ..	1·5—2·5	0·5—1·00	0·7—1·5	0·5—1·5
Total Nitrogen ..	0·15—0·20	0·05—0·08	0·05—0·08	0·06—0·09
PH value ..	4—6·5	5—7·5	7—8	7—7·5
	Mgm. per cent.	Mgm. per cent.	Mgm. per cent.	Mgm. per cent.
Available P_2O_5 ..	0—5	0—5	10—15	10—15
Available K_2O ..	5—10	5—10	20—25	10—15
	(m.eq. per cent.)	(m.eq. per cent.)	(m.eq. per cent.)	m.eq. (per cent.)
Exchangeable Calcium ..	5—8	6—10	20—25	9—10
Exchangeable Magnesium	0·01—0·05	0·08—1·3	5—7	10—11
Exchangeable Sodium ..	0·01—0·02	2—2·5	2—3	7—12
Exchangeable Potassium.	1—2	0·5—1·5	0·4—0·6	1—2
Base Exchange Capacity.	10—17	12—15	30—40	30—36

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

Lateritic Soils.

Lateritic soils which are predominant in the district, vary in colour from bright red to brownish red owing to the preponderance of hydrated iron oxides. They are always acidic, the PH value ranging from 4·5 to 6·5. Lime is deficient or almost absent. Usually they have very low phosphorus and potash content, but are fairly well supplied with nitrogen and organic matter. Their texture is loamy and depth varies from one foot to three feet. They are porous and not retentive of moisture and are found all over the district except in Mandangad taluka which consists mainly of forests. These soils, however, are found in several grades, which depend upon their (soils) location and the extent of admixture of different rocks. The following of these grades are of special significance.

Rice Soils.

These soils have various names which are identified with their location. Those situated at higher levels are usually known as *mal*, while those at slightly lower levels are called *kuryat* soils. Near the water courses, which have a fair supply of water during the *rabi* season, are the *panthal* or *vaingan* soils. All these soils benefit by liming and give high response to the application of phosphatic and potassic fertilisers. Only a *kharif* crop of paddy can be taken on these soils. On the *panthal* soils, however, a crop of *rabi* pulse (*wal*) or summer (*vaingan*) paddy can also be taken.

Varkas Soils.

These soils are situated on the slopes of the hills and are partly eroded, yellowish red and poor in fertility. Further, they are shallow in depth and coarse in texture. Ragi (*nagli*) is the principal crop in these soils and it responds well to supplies of nitrogen and phosphate. Cashewnut grows in plenty in this area. It is on these soils that the world renowned Alphonso mangoes are grown. On the mountain tops are the perennial forests, where the soils are rich in humus because of their being protected from erosion. They are reddish-brown in colour.

Garden Soils.

These soils are usually of mixed origin, varying from yellow-red to brown and are located in the basins at the bottom of the hill ranges. They are light, easily workable, well-drained and fairly fertile. Arecanut and cocoanut gardens thrive well in these soils and are located in areas which have plenty of water supply and good drainage. These crops respond well to application of nitrogen, phosphorus and potash.

Coastal Alluviums.

The coastal strips in Dapoli, Guhagar, Ratnagiri and Rajapur talukas are covered with soils of recent deposits and are locally known as *pulanwat*. They are deep sandy loams and cocoanut gardens and arecanut gardens thrive well in them. Paddy is also taken here to some extent.

Salt Lands.

Due to the inundation of the sea, a part of the coastal soils has become salty. They are locally known by several names like *khar, khajan, kharvat,* etc. In Deogad, Malvan and Vengurla

talukas, the entire western strips are salty while in other coastal talukas only salt patches which are suited to the coarser types of paddy are to be noticed.

Since these salt lands have not yet become alkaline, they can be reclaimed for cultivation. With a view to making *khar* lands fit for cultivation Government enacted the Bombay Khar Lands Act, 1948 and passed the Bombay Khar Lands Rules, 1949 to provide for protection and improvement of *khar* and *khajan* lands and reclamation of tidal lands in the State by construction and maintenance of and repairs to embankments of the lands. The act was brought into force with effect from 11th July 1949 in the district. Under the provisions of the Act, the Government established the Khar Lands Development Board on 11th July 1949. The Revenue Department administers the Act, and sanctions individual Khar Lands Scheme thereunder approved and prepared by the Board. The schemes so sanctioned are executed and completed by the Board. The Act provides for a Government subsidy of 40 per cent. of the cost of the schemes; the remaining 60 per cent. to be contributed by the beneficiaries. The Board also recovers a small annual cess called "Khar Bandisti Akar" from the beneficiaries, being the cost of maintenance of the embankments constructed under the scheme. By 1958, the Board had reclaimed in this district about 1,959 acres covered by 13 schemes at a cost of Rs. 1,51,305.

FOREST AREA.

According to the data received from the Forest Department the area under forests in 1955-56 was 58,635 acres.* Of this, 56,554 acres were reserved and the rest protected. Nearly 19,653 acres were under the charge of Revenue Department. Besides this there are extensive *malki* forests in the district. The forest produce, in addition to timber and grass, includes *Shikekai* (*acacia concinna* DC.), *hirda* (*terminalia chebula* Retz.) etc.

LAND UTILISATION.

The total geographical area of the district shows considerable increase over that given in the old Gazetteer mainly because of its reconstitution in 1949 when the former Sawantwadi State was merged in the then Bombay State and made a part of the district, and due to some border re-adjustments. In 1955-56, the total area was 31,65,863 acres.

The district is formed by a narrow belt of low land lying between the Indian Ocean and the Sahyadri hills. Though hilly and rugged as a whole, the district presents in different parts many characteristic features. Near the Sahyadri hills the valleys are more open and the

* Season and Crop Report of the Bombay State, 1955-56 gives this area as 40,058 acres. The disagreement in these two figures is primarily due to the fact that the dates of reporting the area figures for annual reports differ in the case of Forest and Revenue Departments; Forest Department statistics are for the financial year whereas Revenue Department statistics are for the agricultural year.

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.

hills less rugged than towards the centre of the district, which is more of a mass of wild rugged hills. These again, towards the coast, fall into nearly level plateaus, in great part made barren by a capping of laterite rock, cleft by deep narrow steepsided valleys and ravines, through which rivers and streams find their way from the Sahyadri hills to the sea. These rivers have on their banks nearly all the fertile land of the southern Konkan. Over the rest of the country the soil is miserably poor. This explains why the area under cultivation (9,59,547 acres) is as low as 30 per cent. of the total area.

TABLE No. 9

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LAND UTILISATION.

Cultivated and Uncultivated area.

TABLE

STATEMENT SHOWING CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED AREA

Taluka.	No. of villages.	Total geographical area.	Cultivated area. Gross cropped area.	Area cropped more than once.	Net area sown.	Current fallows.	Total cultivated area.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Dapoli ..	153	2,12,768	92,183	1,015	91,168	7,274	98,442
Mandangad ..	94	1,05,137	26,792	550	26,242	2,848	29,090
Khed ..	146	2,50,659	55,446	1,598	53,848	1,641	55,489
Chiplun .	135	2,75,800	1,10,453	1,314	1,09,139	31,983	1,41,122
Guhagar ..	78	1,55,211	32,037	812	31,225	4,979	36,204
Sangameshwar .	172	3,16,558	52,244	1,136	51,108	18,898	70,006
Ratnagiri ..	126	2,27,913	72,301	1,516	70,785	2,168	72,953
Lanja .	84	1,82,266	62,317	371	61,946	19,675	81,621
Rajapur	149	3,12,279	85,655	1,842	83,813	621	84,434
Deogad ..	64	1,80,063	33,550	1,844	31,706	..	31,706
Kankavli .	67	1,90,904	51,147	555	50,592	..	50,592
Malvan .	60	1,52,616	52,446	2,827	49,619	10,581	60,200
Vengurla ..	18	71,617	30,805	1,150	29,655	580	30,235
Kudal .	79	2,02,079	57,631	3,482	54,149	4,967	59,116
Sawantwadi ..	126	1,29,993	62,283	3,946	58,337	..	58,337
District Total.	1,551	31,65,813	8,77,200	23,958	8,53,352	1,06,215	9,50,547

No. 9.

IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT IN THE YEAR 1955-56.

Uncultivated area.							
Forests.	Barren and unculturable area.	Land put to non-agricultural uses.	Culturable waste.	Permanent pastures and other grazing area.	Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves.	Other fallows.	Total uncultivated area.
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
2,288	53,234	1,092	55,205	1,236	..	1,21,271	1,14,326
39	25,687	476	18,208	..	..	31,637	70,047
5,706	53,385	139	1,900	..	387	1,33,653	1,95,170
592	60,867	2 714	358	8	60,679	3,466	1,34,678
..	48,514	1,467	34,673	..	.	34,353	1,19,067
351	84,920	1,340	1,58 013	..	.	1,922	2,46,562
7	86,040	5,872	3,645	..	283	58,513	1,54 960
2 479	50,524	2 716	41,413	.	..	3,513	1,00,045
6	86,018	3,618	1,34,683	..	.	4,120	2,27,845
11	78 227	49	26,260	.	..	43,810	1,48,357
..	33,089	7,758	35,691	..	.	63,764	1,40,312
659	50,222	27,591	9,942	..	.	4,062	92,416
1,526	17,604	2,010	11,715	..	.	8,527	41,382
7,646	37,605	4,411	70,654	12		24,605	1,42,963
27,648	77 325	781	1,44 530	..	.	21,360	2,71,656
46,958	84,91 871	61,983	7,46,323	1,250	61,349	5,18,576	22,06,316

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
LAND UTILISATION.
Cultivated and Uncultivated Area.

Nearly 70 per cent. of the area of the district was reported as uncultivated in 1955-56. Out of this about 39 per cent. is barren and unculturable; 33 per cent. is culturable waste (i.e. all lands available for cultivation, whether or not taken up for cultivation or abandoned after five years for one reason or the other); 20 per cent. is under fallows; 3 per cent. is put to non-agricultural uses e.g. for buildings, roads, railways, canals, etc.; 2 per cent. is under forests and the rest is under pastures, grazing grounds, miscellaneous tree crops and groves etc.

Other Fallows.

A significant fact to be noted is a large proportion of land left fallow for necessary soil accumulation. In *varkas* lands, in particular, crop rotation has to be followed as a rule owing to gradual washing away of the soil. Usually *nagli, vari, harik* and sesamum are taken out in turn whereafter the land is kept fallow for about 4-5 years. Thereafter the rotation is resumed.

CHAPTER 5.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
LAND UTILISATION.
Cropped area.

TABLE No. 10.

DISTRIBUTION OF CROPPED AREA IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT DURING THE YEAR 1955-56.

In acres.

	Gross Cropped Area: Kharif		Rabi		Total		Grand Total.	Area cropped more than once.	Net cropped area.	Cropped area of forecast crops.	
	Food Crops.	Non-food Crops.	Food Crops.	Non-food Crops.	Food Crops.	Non-food Crops.				Matured.	Failed.
Dapoli	51,398	40,785	..	..	51,398	40,785	92,183	1,015	91,168	..	..
Mandangad	20,837	5,405	550	..	21,387	5,405	26,792	550	26,242	26,792	..
Khed	50,703	4,743	..	..	50,703	4,743	55,446	1,598	53,848	53,848	..
Chiplun	68,970	39,642	1,841	..	70,811	39,642	1,10,453	1,314	1,09,139	1,09,139	..
Guhagar	28,854	2,304	812	67	29,666	2,371	32,037	812	31,225	32,037	..
Sangameshwar	47,948	2,673	1,498	125	49,446	2,798	52,244	1,136	51,108	52,244	
Ratnagiri	33,374	35,873	3,054	..	36,428	35,873	72,301	1,516	70,785	72,301	..
Lanje	31,712	30,605	.	..	31,712	30,605	62,317	371	61,946	62,317	..
Rajapur	54,457	31,198	.	..	54,457	31,198	85,655	1,842	83,813	85,655	..
Deogad	22,709	10,841	..	..	22,709	10,841	33,550	1,844	31,706	34,587	..
Kankavli	41,639	8,978	455	75	42,094	9,053	51,147	555	50,592	50,592	..
Malvan	43,461	8,985	..	..	43,461	8,985	52,446	2,827	49,619	52,446	..
Vengurla	23,264	6,832	709	..	23,973	6,832	30,805	1,150	29,655	..	..
Kudal	55,473	2,158	..	..	55,473	2,158	57,631	3,482	54,149	57,631	..
Sawantwadi	58,197	4,086	..	..	58,197	4,086	62,283	3,946	58,337	62,603	..
District Total	6,32,996	2,35,108	8,919	267	6,41,915	2,35,375	8,77,290	23,958	8,53,332	7,52,282	..

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
LAND UTILISATION.
Cropped Area.

Out of the total cultivated area, 1,006,215 acres were left fallow during 1955-56. Net area sown was 8,53,332 acres. Area cropped more than once was 23958 acres. Gross cropped area was, therefore, 8,77,290 acres. Chiplun taluka has the highest acreage under plough. More than 40 per cent. of gross cropped area was to be found in Chiplun, Dapoli, Rajapur and Ratnagiri talukas. *Bagayat* (irrigated) land is only 3·8 per cent. of gross cropped area and is concentrated in Vengurla and Sawantwadi talukas. The rest of the land (*jirayat*) depends upon monsoon. Gross cropped area may further be classified as under food and non-food crops. Though the district mainly produces food crops, acreage under non-food crops was of the order of 27 per cent. in 1955-56. Almost all the crops are taken in *kharif* season. Acreage under *rabi* crops was hardly 9,000.

HOLDINGS.
Size and number.

Holding implies the area of land (may be consisting of scattered fragments located in different areas) registered in the name of holder. Fragment is a single piece of land, located in any place, and forming a holding or part of a holding of a single holder. In 1878-79, there were 1,01,276 holdings (*khatas*) in Ratnagiri district with a district average (excluding Sawantwadi State) of ten acres. There were 57,194 holdings of not more than five acres; 31,019 were between 5 and 20 acres; 11,396 were between 20 and 100 acres; 902 were between 100 and 500 acres and 45 were over 500 acres. The following table gives statistics about holdings in Government Rayatwari areas in the district in 1947-48 and 1952-53:—

TABLE No. 11.

HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT IN 1947-48.

Magnitude Groups.	Class A.			Class B.			Class C.			Total.		
	Number of Persons.	Area held (in acres).		Number of persons.	Area held in acres).		Number of persons.	Area held (in acres).		Number of persons.	Area held (in acres).	
		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.
1. Up to 5 acres ..	60,574	68,742	5,157	506	2,010	100	11,037	15,645	1,392	72,117	86,397	6,658
2. Over 5 and upto 15 acres ..	8,823	79,846	1,273	103	632	6	3,331	28,295	1,267	12,257	1,08,773	2,546
3. Over 15 and upto 25 acres ..	2,228	37,779	693	17	375	.	1,142	19,227	865	3,387	57,374	1,558
4. Over 25 and upto 100 acres ..	1,708	67,619	,047	7	438	..	1,008	48,910	2,237	2,723	1,16,967	3,284
5. Over 100 and upto 500 acres ..	124	14,315	558	1	110	..	114	20,077	884	239	34,502	1,442
6. Over 500 acres ..	1	597	.	.	..		1	581	..	2	1,178	..
Total ..	73,458	2,68,891	8,728	634	3,565	115	16,633	1,32,735	6,645	90,725	405,191	15,488

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

Size and number.

TABLE No. 12.

HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT IN 1952-53.

Magnitude Groups.	Class A.			Class B.			Class C.			Total.		
	Number of Persons.	Area held (in acres).		Number of persons.	Area held (in acres).		Number of persons.	Area held (in acres).		Number of persons.	Area held (in acres).	
		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.
1. Up to 5 acres	79,239	1,12,579	4,694	308	507	81	13,157	21,470	1,275	92,704	1,34,556	6,040
2. Over 5 and upto 15 acres	15,852	1,33,029	2,881	93	833	15	3,272	26,531	1,359	19,217	1 60,393	4,255
3. Over 15 and upto 25 acres	3,959	74,334	2,393	37	814	2	1,142	23,263	975	5,138	98,410	3,370
4. Over 25 and upto 100 acres	2,086	1,02,701	2,824	29	1,410	7	1,162	48,544	2,229	3,877	1,52,655	5,060
5. Over 100 and upto 500 acres	139	20,372	342	4	518	39	179	25,505	1,300	322	46,395	1,681
6. Over 500 acres	1	589	..	..	..	..	4	2,905	2,686	5	3,494	2,686
Total	1,01,876	4,43,604	13,124	471	4,082	144	18,916	1,48,217	9,824	1,21,263	5,95,903	23,092

HOLDINGS.

Size and number.

The information contained in these tables relates to the area of the surveyed Government Rayatwari villages only, including, of course, the alienated area found in such villages. It shows whether the landholders cultivate their lands personally or draw rent only by leasing out their lands to tenants. Holdings have been divided into three classes viz., A, B and C. *The class A covered lands cultivated by the holders personally with or without the assistance of labour. In class B were included persons who did not cultivate land personally, but generally got it done with the help of hired labour. The holders in class C leased out their lands to tenants.

Though sufficient data is not available for the intermediate years, there are definite indications to suggest that the size of an average holding. which is indicative of the pressure of population on land has diminished considerably since the publication of last Gazetteer, from 10 acres in 1878-79 to 4·6 acres in 1947-48 and was 5·1 acres in 1952-53. The slight increase in 1952-53, is chiefly due to the inclusion of Sawantwadi State in Ratnagiri district where large areas are held by its *jagirdars*. The diminution in the average size of holding is primarily due to considerable increase in the number of small holders (whose holdings were less than five acres in area). Their number increased from 57 per cent. in 1878-79 to 80 per cent. in 1947-48, and together they accounted for just 22 per cent. of the total area held in the later year, the average holding of the group being 1·3 acres. As against this, nearly nine per cent. of the land was held by about 0·3 per cent. of persons whose average holding exceeded 100 acres. In 1952-53 while the proportionate area held by persons falling in this class remained almost the same, the percentage of holders has considerably declined (not even 0·1 per cent.).

Prevention of fragmentation and consolidation of holdings.

In so far as the extent of fragmentation in the district is concerned the results of the sample survey conducted in 1947 by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Bombay, to study this phenomenon deserve special mention. The percentage of cultivators having single holding is quite large in the district; but the area so covered is not commensurate with the number of holdings That is to say, the holdings which are single are not very large. The average size of a fragment was 0·75 acre and the average number of fragments per holding was 6·92, the highest average so far as the Konkan districts are concerned. This shows how a holding is split up into several fragments in Ratnagiri district. Another feature noticed regarding fragmentation was the tendency for the average number of fragments per holding to increase as the size of the holding increased.

---

* In view of the definition of "personal cultivation" given in the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955, the distinction between classes A and B disappears with the result that in future there will generally be only one class, viz. A.

CHAPTER 5.

—

Agriculture and Irrigation.

Prevention of fragmentation and consolidation of holdings.

In 1947, the Government of Bombay enacted a legislation called the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act (LXII), with a view to starting the process of consolidation of holdings, which was made applicable in the first instance to the pre-merger territories of Ratnagiri district in 1948.

The first part of the law deals with the prevention of further fragmentation of land. The Government has been empowered to fix the standard area (i.e., the minimum area necessary for profitable cultivation as a separate plot), for any class of land in any local area. On account of the differences in the quality of soil, climate, standard of husbandry and other factors, size of the standard area varies from district to district. The 'standard area' is such as is expected to keep the cultivator fully employed on the field and the yield from it is expected to be sufficient to cover the cost of cultivation and Government revenue assessment and provide for a reasonable profit. The range of acreages of the standard areas applicable to various types of land in the district, was fixed for the first time in 1950 (excluding ex-State villages) as under :—

Varkas land	..	six acres.
Rice land	..	one acre.
Garden land	..	one acre.

In 1955, standard areas for ex-State villages were fixed as under :—

Varkas land		two acres.
Rice (salt) land	..	one acre.
Rice (sweet) land	..	twenty gunthas.
Garden land	..	ten gunthas.

In 1956, the Government made these standard areas applicable to the whole of the district and cancelled those that were in vogue since 1950.

Under the law, the provisional figures of the standard areas are published by the Collector in order to invite objections from the public. The standard areas are fixed by him after due consideration of objections and in consultation with the District Advisory Committee set up for the purpose. All existing holdings which are smaller than the standard area are declared as fragments and entered in the Record of Rights and the fact is notified to the fragment holders The fragment holder and his heir can cultivate and inherit the fragment, but if at any time the holder or his heir wants to sell or lease the fragment. it must be sold or leased to a contiguous holder who can merge it with his field. In case the contiguous holder is unwilling to take it or purposely makes a low bid, the Government purchases the fragment in question at the market value according to the provisions of the Land Acquisition Act of 1894 and leases it

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

Prevention of fragmentation and consolidation of holdings.

out to any one of the neighbouring holders. In this process tenants of the fragments are protected but at the same time they cannot be discontinued and creation of fragments in future is prohibited. The transfer or partition contrary to the provisions of this Act, is void and persons guilty of breach are liable to pay a fine up to Rs 250.

Side by side, the Act also provides for a process of consolidation of holdings into compact blocks. This involves valuation of all holdings in a village and their redistribution in such a manner as to secure to each cultivator the same return from land which he had got previous to consolidation. Every effort is made to ensure that exchange is made only of lands of more or less equal fertility and out-turn. Where such exchange is not possible, compensation is paid to the owner who is allotted a holding of less market value than that of his original holding and this compensation is recovered from the owner who is allotted the holding which has greater value than that of his original holding.

The amount of compensation is fixed according to the provisions of the Land Acquisition Act. After the process of consolidation is over, the tenure of the original holding is transferred from the old holding to the new consolidated holding. Similary, leases, debts and encumbrances, if any, are transferred, adjusted and fixed up. The interests of the tenants are safeguarded, as far as possible, and tenancies are usually transferred to the exchanged land. If there is any difference in value between the original holdings and the exchanged ones, adjustments in rent are made.

In Ratnagiri district, Khed taluka and Lanje mahal were selected for the implementation of the consolidation scheme, which covered all villages in Lanje mahal and seven villages in Khed taluka. The total area available for consolidation was 1,28,441 acres in Lanje mahal and 7,047 acres in Khed taluka. The scheme was complete by November, 1959, when 13,145 acres comprising twelve villages in Lanje mahal and 2,830 acres comprising four villages in Khed taluka were consolidated.

The holdings numbered 12,134 prior to consolidation and 4,575 after consolidation in Lanje mahal, whereas the corresponding figures for Khed taluka were 5,675 and 2,545 respectively. The number of fragments too, declined as a result of the scheme from 11,686 to 3,712 in Lanje mahal and from 5,049 to 1,904 in Khed taluka.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

For stepping up agricultural production and for ensuring economic cultivation an increase in the size of holding is necessary. In this regard co-operative farming, which implies pooling of land and management, bears direct relevance. Without undermining the sense of proprietorship and the incentive it provides to industry co-operative farms can enjoy all the advantages that a large unit possesses.

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

There are four kinds of co-operative societies. The description of each is given below :—

(1) *Co-operative Collective Farming Society.*—The society cultivates the land which it owns or takes on lease. No dividend is paid on share capital. Members get wages for their work and in case of profits, a bonus is paid in proportion to their wages. They also have the option to withdraw from such a society in which case they get back their capital. There were two such societies in the district, one at Kankavli and the other at Khed.

(2) *Co-operative Tenancy Farming Society.*—The Society owns land or gets it on lease but does not carry on farming by itself. Land is divided into blocks and each block is given on rent to a cultivator who has to cultivate according to the plan laid down by the society. It also gives various facilities to its members regarding seed, finance, and implements. There was only one society of the type in Malvan taluka.

(3) *Co-operative Better Farming Society.*—In this type of society, the ownership and management of land rest with the individual. The society provides better seeds, adequate manures and facilities for irrigation, storage and marketing. There were nine such societies in the district, two at Sawantwadi, three at Kankavli, three at Malvan and one at Ratnagiri. Though the societies by their very nature could have become popular in the district, they have not made much headway so far.

(4) *Co-operative Joint Farming Society.*—Under this, small pieces of land are pooled together into an economic unit. However, the ownership rests with the individual members. It ensures the advantages of large scale farming and helps to solve the problem of sub-division and fragmentation. All the three societies registered so far are in Rajapur taluka.

CLASSIFICATION OF ACREAGE.

The following two tables show classification of acreage and production of some selected commodities in Ratnagiri district during 1938-39 to 1954-55 :—

TABLE No. 13.

CLASSIFICATION OF AREA IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Year		Cropped area	Forest	Area irrigated	Cereals, Pulses and Millets.	Rice	Ragi	Condiments and Spices	Fruits and Vegetables	Sugars	Fibres	Oil-seeds	Fodder Crops
1938-39	..	7,68,494	12,456	18,006	6,49,368	2,99,669	1,93,292	1,934	11,964	799	5,376	31,909	99,469
1939-40	..	7,71,063	12,436	17,268	6,47,216	2,93,346	1,93,346	1,357	11,813	626	5,389	31,504	1,03,562
1940-41	..	7,71,721	12,436	16,603	6,47,791	2,99,683	1,93,778	1,880	11,762	740	5,380	31,279	1,06,923
1941-42	..	7,73,650	12,176	14,791	6,48,394	2,97,528	1,93,854	1,858	12,165	747	5,543	29,278	1,08,438
1942-43	..	7,78,831	12,175	16,331	6,43,961	2,93,128	1,90,945	1,853	12,619	777	5,562	29,633	1,17,081
1943-44	..	6,43,46[illegible]	12,176	15,064	5,01,540	2,07,834	1,54,345	1,927	13,354	563	5,556	27,926	1,23,145
1944-45	..	6,08,325	12,175	11,292	4,51,509	2,17,017	1,31,747	1,471	11,001	474	3,523	24,042	1,05,690
1945-46	..	5,90,527	12,175	10,361	4,69,592	2,30,376	1,20,171	1,973	10,531	387	2,916	23,762	1,01,576
1946-47	..	5,92,614	12,175	11,450	4,72,403	2,31,050	1,20,061	1,059	10,680	394	2,760	23,574	1,01,277
1947-48	..	5,95,551	12,175	10,048	4,70,149	2,31,399	1,19,191	1,071	11,131	554	2,669	23,720	1,05,716
1948-49		5,96,921	12,175	11,331	4,71,809	2,31,970	1,19,632	1,187	10,593	492	2,629	23,610	1,06,532
1949-50	..	7,16,300	46,900	11,300	5,82,400	2,97,000	1,37,100	2,900	12,400	600	2,700	30,760	1,10,200
1950-51		8,06,300	46,800	19,500	5,89,360	3,03,700	1,37,700	5,700	13,200	600	2,600	30,601	1,66,100
1951-52	.	8,17,900	46,800	20,200	5,89,400	3,03,500	1,38,100	5,800	13,300	500	3,000	30,300	1,75,600
1952-53	..	8,32,200	47,000	33,300	5,98,200	3,05,100	1,42,700	5,800	14,100	500	2,400	30,200	1,81,000
1953-54	.	8,74,500	46,700	33,400	6,07,100	3,13,000	1,42,800	6,100	15,800	500	1,700	29,600	2,13,500
1954-55	..	8,34,100	46,900	32,300	6,13,300	3,12,700	1,44,300	6,500	15,700	400	1,800	29,100	1,66,600

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CLASSIFICATION OF ACREAGE.

TABLE No. 14.

PRODUCTION OF SELECTED COMMODITIES IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

(In tons).

Year	Cereals and Pulses.	Rice	Ragi
1938-39 ..	2,01,240	1,13,713	48,924
1939-40 ..	1,73,376	1,02,134	39,123
1940-41 ..	1,77,091	1,02,347	44,110
1941-42 ..	1,59,840	90,008	39,211
1942-43 ..	1,90,004	1,11,017	44,806
1943-44	1,90,204	94,039	46,855
1944-45 ..	1,79,616	72,864	32,349
1945-46	1,77,089	97,704	20,506
1946-47	1,29,110	81,655	24,120
1947-48	1,29,342	81,537	23,944
1948-49	1,46,270	91,595	26,703
1949-50	1,59,000	1,01,900	29,600
1950-51 . ..	1,61,000	1,03,900	32,500
1951-52	1,74 600	1,20,300	28,300
1952-53	1,67,300	1,15,200	28,300
1953-54	1,92,500	1,36,400	32,100
1954-55	1,86,200	1,27,800	33,200

It will be seen from table No. 13 that cropped area was almost constant at 7·7 lakh acres between 1938-39 and 1942-43. Thereafter it decreased gradually and was little less than 6 lakh acres between 1945-46 to 1948-49. From 1950-51 onwards, it continued to increase. the highest acreage recorded being 8·8 lakh acres in 1953-54. The acreage under forests continued to be around 12 thousand acres till 1948-49, whereafter it recorded a substantial increase and was nearly four times the acreage prevalent during the preceding decade. Area irrigated ranged between 14,000 and 18,000 acres between 1938-39 and 1943-44. It suddenly dropped down to about 11,000 acres in the following year and continued to be around 11,000 acres till 1949-50, the lowest acreage recorded being 10,048 in 1947-48. However, from 1950-51 onwards area irrigated represented a significant increase and was over 32,000 acres during 1952-53 to 1954-55, the highest acreage recorded being 33,400 acres in 1953-54. Acreage

under cereals and pulses' was about 6·4 lakh acres from 1938-39 to 1942-43. In the following year it decreased by over one lakh acres and thereafter continued to be below five lakh acres till 1948-49. From 1949-50, it represented a gradual increase and was 6,13,300 acres in 1954-55.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CLASSIFICATION OF ACREAGE.

Acreage under rice and ragi did not show marked variations during the period under review. The acreage under rice was less than three lakh acres between 1938-39 and 1949-50, whereafter it increased by few thousand acres and continued to be over three lakh acres up to 1954-55, the maximum acreage recorded being 3,13,000 acres in 1953-54. Acreage under ragi was little below two lakh acres from 1938-39 to 1942-43. In 1943-44 it decreased to 1·5 lakh acres and during the subsequent years it never crossed this mark of 1·5 lakh acres. Acreage under condiments and spices varied between 1,059 (1946-47) and 2,000 acres up to 1949-50. However, in the subsequent years it showed a tremendous increase and was 6,500 acres in 1954-55, being the highest during the period under review. As regards acreage under fruits and vegetables it varied between 10,000 and 13,500 acres from 1938-39 to 1951-52. Thereafter it showed a gradual increase and was over 15,000 acres during the last two years under consideration. As for acreage under sugars it was over 700 acres up to 1942-43, with the exception of 1939-40 when it amounted to 623 acres. Thereafter it showed a gradual tendency to decline and was 400 acres in 1954-55. Acreage under fibres was over 5 thousand acres up to 1943-44 whereafter it represented a definite though gradual, tendency to decline and amounted to 1,800 acres in 1954-55. In respect of acreage under oilseeds, it can easily be discerned that it has been around 30 thousand acres during the period under review, except between 1944-45 and 1948-49 when it amounted to about 23,000 acres. Acreage under fodder crops was around one lakh acres up to 1949-50. It showed a gradual increase during the subsequent years, the highest acreage recorded being 2,13,500 acres in 1953-54.

Production of Selected commodities.

Table No. 14 reveals the position as regards production of cereals and pulses, rice and ragi. The production of cereals and pulses was more or less constant and did not show marked variations from the average for the period under review viz. 1·70 lakh tons. The production of rice was little over one lakh tons between 1938-39 and 1942-43 and between 1949-50 and 1954-55; the average for the period being 1·03 lakh tons. It was below one lakh tons during the intervening period (1943-44 to 1948-49); the lowest production recorded being 0·73 lakh tons in 1944-45 as against the highest production of 1·36 lakh tons in 1953-54. The highest production of ragi was recorded in 1938-39 at 49 thousand tons which was higher by 15 thousand tons than the general average for the period viz., 34 thousand tons. It will be seen from the table that the production of ragi did not show variations of a large magnitude from the general average, particularly 1944-45 onwards.

The following table shows the acreage under different crops in 1955-56 :—

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CLASSIFICATION OF ACREAGE.

TABLE No. 15.

ACREAGE UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS (TALUKA-WISE) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT DURING 1955-56.

	Cereals.	Pulses.	Sugar-cane.	Fruits (Fresh and Dry).	Vegetables.	Fibres				Oil-Seeds.*	Condiments and Spices.	Drugs and Narcotics.	Fodder Crops.
						Jute.	Sann-hemp. (Bombay Hemp).	Ambadi.	Total.				
Dapoli	46,355	2,229	29	1,334	34	..	25	..	25	2,773	1,417	..	37,987
Mandangad ..	19,731	577	1	865	21	..	7	..	7	1,064	192	..	4,314
Khed	48,596	1,825	..	85	75	..	6	5	11	307	122	..	4,425
Chiplun ..	67,301	1,632	..	206	1,583	14	..	..	14	764	87	..	38,864
Guhagar ..	28,187	612	31	211	69	..	33	..	33	1,872	356	..	766
Sangameshwar ..	47,820	1,281	16	134	67	..	15	10	25	767	128	..	1,986
Ratnagiri ..	32,062	1,163	14	2,633	95	..	..	..	..	1,596	461	..	34,367
Lanje	30,722	651	1	131	41	..	20	..	20	1,219	166	..	29,366
Rajapur ..	51,001	2,502	17	440	36	..	865	11	876	1,654	461	..	28,668
Deogad ..	21,062	186	59	1,103	335	..	476	2	478	1,298	264	..	9,065
Kankavli ..	37,327	4,323	16	228	82	..	53	..	53	1,363	118	..	7,617
Malvan	34,481	5,946	145	1,878	302	..	101	..	101	5,308	610	5	3,481
Vengurla	16,106	4,038	19	2,554	164	..	14	..	14	5,012	492	..	1,806
Kudal ..	46,615	7,461	30	703	189	..	22	..	22	1,907	475	..	229
Sawantwadi ..	48,975	6,533	36	1,164	344	..	83	..	63	8,963	1,143	20	20
District—Total ..	5,76,341	41,759	414	13,671	3,527	14	1,720	28	1,762	35,717	6,501	25	2,02,961

*No non-edible oil seeds were reported in 1955-56.

Classification of Acreage.

Cereals occupied nearly 66 per cent. of the gross cropped area. In this group, rice is the most important accounting for the highest acreage followed by *ragi*, kodra, *vari* and *sava*. Pulses come next occupying five per cent. of the total cropped area. Horse gram (*Kulthi*), black gram (*udid*) and *val* are the important ones among them. *Mug, turi* and *chavli* are minor pulses grown. Among fruits mango and cashew-nut are the dominant crops. Other fruits grown are banana, jack fruit and pineapple. Acreage under sugar-cane and fibres (e.g., jute, sann hemp and *ambadi*) is negligible. Among oil-seeds (3·5 per cent.) cocoanut is the most important crop followed by sesamum. In the group condiments and spices (one per cent.) only chillies deserve mention. Spicegardens are not observed, presumably due to the lack of evergreen stand of forests in the *ghats* of this region. Acreage under fodder crops was about 23 per cent. of the gross cropped area. Following is an account of the important crops that are grown in the district.

CEREALS.

Out of 6,41,915 acres under food crops in 1955-56 in Ratnagiri district, area under cereals was nearly 90 per cent. The following table shows the acreage under different cereal crops :—

TABLE No. 16

AREA UNDER CEREALS (TALUKA-WISE) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT—1955-56.

Taluka.	Rice.	Ragi.	Kodo or Varagu. (Kodra).	Vari.	Sava.	Other Cereals.	Total Cereals.
Dapoli	18,217	16,361	7,269	4,508	..	..	46,355
Mandangad ..	9,278	5,483	2,411	2,559	..	..	19,731
Khed ..	29,516	12,942	2,676	3,475	87	..	48,696
Chiplun ..	28,890	22,400	9,626	6,385	..	..	67,301
Guhagar ..	8,218	11,908	4,939	3,122	..	..	28,187
Sangameshwar ..	23,083	14,052	7,712	2,973	..	..	47,820
Ratnagiri ..	15,965	8,217	5,244	2,583	53	..	32,062
Lanje ..	12,896	8,861	6,912	2,053	..	..	30,722
Rajapur ..	24,164	13,919	8,504	3,982	432	..	51,001
Deogad ..	13,754	4,542	1,369	1,397	..	..	21,062
Kankavli ..	24,944	5,278	4,222	2,460	..	423	37,327
Malvan ..	25,810	5,070	2,101	1,500	..	..	34,481
Vengurla ..	10,947	3,316	1,220	623	..	..	16,106
Kudal ..	37,283	6,261	1,760	1,311	..	..	46,615
Sawantwadi ..	31,944	10,206	4,196	2,629	..	..	48,975
District—Total	3,14,909	1,48,816	70,161	41,460	572	423	5, 76,34

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CEREALS.

Bhat.

Bhat (rice) occupied first place not only among cereals but among all the crops grown in the district with an area of about 55 per cent. of that under cereals and 35 per cent. of gross cropped area. This marks a significant change, as in 1877-78 (when the old Gazetteer was compiled) it held only fourth place among all the crops. Though its cultivation is common to all parts of the district, Kudal, Sawantwadi, Khed and Chiplun talukas together have nearly 40 per cent. of the total area under paddy. The acreage in Guhagar and Mandangad is very low. Mandangad is mainly a forest region, while salt lands, coastal alluviums and *varkas* soils predominate in Guhagar. These soils are not suitable for paddy cultivation.

Rice is grown mainly on high-lying or upland soils (*kuryat soils*) and on low-lying lands (*mal* lands). Important modes of growing paddy as a rainy season crop are described in the following paragraphs.

Rabbing.

The practice of *rabbing* for preparing seed beds, to raise seedlings is very common. Seed bed area is covered by a layer about three inches thick of dry leaves, dry cattle dung and other dry refuse and set fire to in April-May on the eastern end of the area, preferably in the evening to allow for the slow burning which is accomplished easily because the evening sea breeze blows from west to east and as such it takes some time for the fire, set on the eastern side, to reach western end. This process of burning the seed bed area is locally known as '*rab*', and is still followed probably with a view to destroying the weeds, weed seeds, harmful micro-organisms and insects and adding some manurial ingredients through the ash formed, to give a better start to the young seedlings. Since rains are due in the first week of June, the seed beds, after some operation with hand tools, are sown with paddy seeds early in June, either in anticipation of rains or immediately after rains. These seeds take about a month to come to the height suitable for transplanting and during this time the cultivators get busy in preparing land for transplanting. The preparatory tillage of paddy lands consists of (a) *ukhalani* or light ploughing; (b) *chikhalani* or puddling and (c) *guta phiravine* or planking or levelling. *Ukhalani* is done after first monsoon showers to break the hard crust of the surface soil so that penetration in the earth becomes easier for subsequent ploughings. Puddling is done by means of a light plough to prepare fine soft mud-beds for transplanting the seedlings. Puddling has to be done in all kinds of rice soils. A well-puddled field holds water longer and keeps the plants green. After puddling a wooden plank is dragged by bullocks over the field to level the land.

Transplanting.

As soon as the mud-beds get ready, seedlings are carefully uprooted from the seed bed, tied in small bundles and carried to *khachars* where they are finally transplanted. Transplanting is done by hand. Generally eight to ten persons are required for transplanting an acre of land. Ten to fifteen seedlings held in a bunch are simply pressed in the mud with a spacing of nine or twelve inches both ways.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CEREALS.

Bhat.

Broadcasting.

In the case of *kuryat* lands, transplanting is replaced by broadcasting of sprouted seeds in puddled fields. This method is locally known as '*rahu*' method. Paddy seeds are put in an oven-shaped vessel in which they are submerged in water. The lighter seeds, which float on water surface, are rejected, as the heavy seeds give better stand and yield. After about 12 to 24 hours, water is allowed to drain away and the soaked seed is then filled in bamboo *karandahs* (baskets) the inner side of which is covered by rice straw. Lukewarm water is then poured on the seed; the top of *karandahs* or baskets is then covered by teak leaves and rice straw and loaded with stones and pieces of logs so as to create warmth inside, required for sprouting. On each of the two consecutive days, water is sprinkled over the paddy straw to keep the seed moist. In three days the seeds sprout well. The quantity of seed required for sowing an acre of land under this method is about 60 to 80 lbs., as against 40 to 60 lbs. under transplanting.

In salt lands, early coarse varieties of paddy are generally sown. Sprouted seeds, two or three days old are broadcast in the field when the area becomes inaccessible after heavy rains. These set very hard on drying and get very soft and sticky when wet. Farmers find it almost impossible to enter the field when wet and hence implements cannot be worked in such fields. This method of broadcasting sprouted seedlings is also followed in some parts where, after ploughing, the field remains inaccessible for sowing due to continuous torrential rains.

Dry Sowing.

Dry sowing, which is known as *dhul-waf* sowing, is also done in some places, in the months of May and June just before rains. This method of sowing facilitates an early start for the seedlings.

Shel Sowing

In southern talukas, in the low-lying and retentive soils known as *shel-soils,* seed is sown during March and April. Hand digging of seed beds precedes ploughing. Seeds are sown by broadcasting. No *rabbing* is done. The seed germinates and the seedlings remain on ground till monsoon starts. These seedlings are known as *tap-tarava* and survive on dew and on the moisture retained by the soil. They are supposed to resist pest incidence, especially of the stemborers, in a better way.

Japanese method of paddy cultivation.

The introduction of the Japanese method of paddy cultivation marks an important development in the processes of paddy cultivation. The main features of this method, in brief are as follows :—

(*i*) raised nurseries for seedlings;

(*ii*) low seed rate for nurseries;

(*iii*) heavy manuring of the crop, both in nurseries and in fields;

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CEREALS.

Bhat.

(iv) transplantation of fewer seedlings per bunch;

(v) transplanting in rows; and

(vi) adequate interculturing and proper weeding.

Japanese Method of Paddy cultivation.

After ascertaining the results of laying out experimental plots on the Government farms at Karjat in Kolaba district and Kosbad in Thana district, the campaign of propagating this method was launched in the district in 1953-54. The campaign placed emphasis mainly on arranging demonstrations of various operations involved in Japanese method at different places by calling meetings or holding camps. In addition to this, *tagavi* grants to the extent of Rs. 125 per acre were made available to the cultivators for practising this method. Intensive propaganda by way of holding meetings, arranging talks and dramas, giving publicity by posters and films etc., has also been undertaken. The results of these demonstrations showed that on an average the cost of cultivation by the application of Japanese method comes to Rs. 230 per acre as against Rs. 150 by the local method. The average yield per acre amounts to about 30 maunds of paddy as against 15 to 20 maunds by the local method. The progress achieved by this scheme in the First Plan is given below :—

Year.	Acreage brought under cultivation.	No. of Demonstrations given.	Tagavi in Rupees.
1953-54	826	826	95,257
1954-55	8,314	988	55,071
1955-56	14,909	802	42,968

By September, early varieties of paddy like *Patni* which mature in 100 to 105 days begin to ripen. Mid-late and late varieties take more time. Mid-late varieties like *Waksal* take 120 to 125 days for maturing and late varieties like *Varangal* and *Kolamba* ripen in 145 to 150 days. Harvesting is over by the end of October. After the crop matures, it is cut close to the ground by means of sickles and left in the field for 2 to 3 days for drying, whereafter it is tied in bundles which are taken to a threshing yard. These bundles are either stacked or threshed immediately, to obtain grain by beating these bundles against a wooden plank. The straw is also trodded under the feet of bullocks to obtain the remaining grain in the ear-heads. De-husking of paddy is generally done in rice mills now working in all towns. In remote village de-husking is usually done by women who grind the grain between two revolving round wooden blocks, locally known as *ghati*. In rice mills, polished rice is obtained after the removal of all husk and coat on the grain. Hand pounding retains this coat which contains nutritive elements. In mills, grain gets broken during the process of husking. This broken grain (*kani*) is separated and sold at a lower price.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CEREALS.

Bhat.

In southern parts, bold grain varieties like *bhadas* etc., are grown for obtaining par-boiled rice which is mainly eaten here. Paddy is boiled in plain water for about half an hour till the husk slightly splits. Grain is then dried in shade for 3-4 days, de-husked and consumed in the form of boiled rice (*bhat*) or thick gruel (*ambil or pej*).

Waingan paddy.

Though paddy is principally grown in *kharif* season, it is also grown on an area of about 11,000 acres a year in the hot season, wherever facilities of irrigation water from perennial nallahs or wells exist*. The paddy grown in the hot season is locally known as *waingan* crop. The Sawantwadi, Kudal and Malvan talukas are the major producers.

Waingan paddy is grown on high-lying or upland soils locally known as *kuryat* soils and low-lying, more retentive soils known as *mal* soils in the proximity of water facilities. In January-February paddy lands which become compact are artificially irrigated and immediately ploughed both length-wise and breadth-wise so that clods do not come up. Clods are then crushed by *gutephali* on the third day and land is again ploughed both length-wise and breadth-wise after irrigation, followed by clod crushing. Bunds are then prepared in the rice field at suitable places to divide the field into compartments (*dalas or choudas*) for compounding water and are plastered with mud so as not to allow any growth of weeds. Land is then puddled by a plough ; puddling is best achieved by the use of *gutephali* after puddling by plough. Where *waingan* paddy is grown on interior well terraced and bunded lands, as many as six ploughings are given both length-wise and breadth-wise, so as to bring land into good puddled condition so essential for (i) standing water and (ii) for preventing drainage of water in the hot season. Twelve to fifteen cart-loads of farm yard manure per acre are applied evenly and uniformly all over the field before puddling. Application of more quantity is considered desirable as it helps the retention of soil moisture so badly required for the paddy crop in the hot season. In order to minimise water drainage, fresh cow-dung slurry (*shenakala*), by using about one cart-load of fresh cow dung per acre, is uniformly spread after puddling. When water is about one inch high in the field, sprouted seeds of paddy called *rahu* are broadcast equally all over the field. About 50-60 lbs. of seed on *kuryat* lands and 60-80 lbs. of seed on *mal* lands are required per acre. The *Patni-6* variety is always preferred by the cultivators because it ripens early and thus enables them to take the next *kharif* crop. The seed generally used for the *waingan* crop belongs to the previous *kharif* crop. The seed is well dried before sowing. Some days after broadcasting the sprouted seed in the fields, small quantity of water is given each day till all the seeds have germinated completely. Irrigation water is applied each day either in the evening or early in the morning with the intention of giving maximum benefit of water to the growing plants. Considerable vigilance is exercised by the cultivators to prevent the land

*Farmer, December 1958, Vol. IX, No. 12, p. 31, Published by Directorate of Publicity, Government of Bombay.

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.

CEREALS.

Bhat.

from cracking. Additional quantity of water is required when the crop reaches flowering stage. Cultivators apply nitrogen as top dressing in the form of cake, as concentrated manures like ammonium sulphate may cause scorching of the seedlings if water supply is inadequate. About 25-30 lbs. of nitrogen per acre are applied in two equal instalments, one after the establishment of the seedlings and the other before flowering time, i.e., seven to eight weeks after sowing *waingan paddy* the *Patni-6* variety of paddy. No weeding is required as weeds do not come up in well-puddled lands.

Water is withheld for about eight to ten days prior to harvesting. The *Patni-6* variety is ready for harvest after 3½ months from sowing. The plants are cut close to the ground by sickle and allowed to dry for a day or two and then removed to threshing yard. They are then beaten against a plank when the seed is separated from the panicles. The seed is winnowed, well-dried and then preserved. If due care is taken, yield of about 1,600 lbs. of paddy per acre can be reaped. The paddy and the straw obtained from the *waingan* crop are supposed to be more nutritious. As the yield in the district is considerably low, whatever stock of grain is stored by the cultivators is meant not for marketing but for consumption only. They use wooden bins or boxes (*kothars*) and *kangas* (bamboo mats made into hollow cylinders) for storing. *Kanga* is plastered on both sides with dung and its bottom is sunk in the ground to a depth of nine inches, in the house or outside the house in a verandah. After thoroughly cleaning it from inside, paddy is filled in and covered with straw. The opening of the *kangas* is secured by light plastering or by stitching with gunny cloth.

Paddy is used for parching and popping and is made into products like *poha* and *murmura*.

Nagli, Nachni or Ragi.

Nagli or *nachni* (ragi), next in importance to rice, occupied nearly 27 per cent. of the area under cereals. Its cultivation is concentrated mainly in Chiplun, Dapoli, Sangameshwar, Rajapur, Khed, Guhagar and Sawantwadi talukas which account for nearly 70 per cent. of the acreage under this crop. It is grown in *kharif* season on light and slopy lands. When the hill slopes are first cultivated, *nachni* is the first crop taken followed by *vari*, *kodra* and *sava*; and then by crops like horse gram, *tur*, niger and sesamum. After this rotation, the land is left fallow for another five or seven years and once again this rotation is resumed. Seedlings are raised on seed beds (about five to six gunthas) in an area prepared by *rabbing*. Seed rate is about six to eight lbs. Land is ploughed twice or thrice and seedlings are transplanted at a distance of six inches in July in terraced fields. Ragi is given fish manure about six to eight maunds per acre and is buried deep in the soil when the seedlings are transplanted. In other soils no manuring is done. Early varieties take 130 to 135 days to mature whereas late varieties require about 150 days for ripening. After tillage, work consists of hand weeding once or

twice. The matured plants are cut close to the ground and brought to threshing yard where ear-heads are separated, dried, and threshed by hand or under bullocks' feet. *Nagli* on an average yields 600 to 800 lbs. per acre and is usually consumed by poor people in the form of bread or *ambil*.

Harik.

Harik (Kodra) is a rainfed crop. It is well adapted to the poorest soil which perhaps explains the fact that it occupied nearly 12 per cent. of the area under cereals. However, its importance is on the decline as can be seen from its description in old Gazetteer that it held the first place with 34·57 per cent. of the total area under tillage. Its seed is sown straight in the fields by broadcasting and is then covered by dragging twigs or a plank. Seed rate is about 15 to 20 lbs. per acre. *Harik* is sown in July and harvesting is completed by the end of October. Kodra is said to be a powerful narcotic and is boiled and eaten only by the poor. Kodra straw, being harmful, is not fed to the cattle.

Vari, Sava.

Cultural practices in the case of vari (varai) and *sava* are similar to that of *nachni*. Acreage under *sava* is almost negligible, though the area under vari occupied as much as seven per cent. of the total area under cereals. Transplating or broadcasting is done in July and harvesting is over by October. The yield of vari and *sava* comes to about 600 lbs. per acre in Ratnagiri district. Vari is either cooked as a substitute for rice or used for making bread. The straw of vari and *sava* is inferior and is used usually for rabbing and thatching.

PULSES.

The following table shows the area under various kinds of pulses in the district in 1955-56 :—

TABLE No. 17.

AREA UNDER PULSES (TALUKA—WISE) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1955-56.

(In acres).

	Gram.	Green Gram or Mug.	Tur.	Black Gram or Udid.	Horse Gram	Val.	Chavli.	Other Pulses.	Total Pulses.
Dapoli	3	2	45	1,336	123	712	8	....	2,229
Mandangad	....	19	24	122	4	406	2	....	577
Khed	11	27	388	220	20	1,159	....	....	1,825
Chiplun	8	17	205	249	72	1,073	8	....	1,632
Guhagar	12	6	11	161	262	352	8	....	812
Sangameshwar	....	2	66	119	136	956	2	....	1,281
Ratnagiri	....	36	23	189	419	320	176	....	1,163
Lanje	....	11	8	74	499	51	8	..	651
Rajapur	....	23	170	310	1,691	177	131	....	2,502
Deogad	....	32	61	....	....	47	46	....	186
Kankavli	....	4	28	403	3,813	73	1	1	4,323
Malvan	....	124	191	1,348	4,159	60	64	....	5,946
Vengurla	....	9	26	1,976	2,627	....	....	....	4,638
Kudal	....	46	78	1,743	5,452	50	92	....	7,461
Sawantwadi	....	67	130	1,660	4,626	....	50	....	6,533
District Total	34	425	1,454	9,910	23,903	5,436	596	1	41,759

PULSES.

Pulses occupy five per cent. of the tilled area, of which more than 50 per cent. is under horse gram or *kulith*. Other pulses are *tur* (pigeon pea), *udid* (black gram) and *chavli* (small fruited dolichos). Pulses are taken in *kharif* season and are usually grown in rotation with hill millets and, therefore, occupy light soils on slopes. They are sown late in July or early in August after the fall of heavy rains. Sowing is done by broadcasting the seed or by dibbling. Pulses are uprooted and brought to threshing yard where grain is separated from chaff under the feet of bullocks. In the case of *tur* ripe pods are plucked several times before the plants are cut close to the ground. Final threshing is done in the yard by beating the plants against planks. On an average, pulses yield about 300 to 400 lbs. per acre. *Kulith* is also taken as a *rabi* crop after the harvest of paddy. *Val* (large fruited-dolichos) is grown only in *rabi* season on low-lying soils after harvesting of paddy. Sowing is done in November while harvesting is over by February. Seed rate is about 20 lbs. per acre. Seed is sown by hand at the time of ploughing.

Between sowing and harvesting operations, the crop does not require any special care.

SUGAR-CANE.

Sugar-cane occupied 414 acres in 1955-56 and was mostly grown in the southern part on small patches. Local varieties of red cane are grown. Its planting is done after January. Sugar-cane is irrigated by well water. Generally farm yard manure is applied before planting and later, ground-nut cake is used in two doses, one at the time of planting and the other at the time of earthing up. The yield of sugar-cane per acre amounts to 15 or 20 tons. The cane grown in this tract is said to be of a very high quality and is mainly used for chewing and extraction of juice for drinking, though a few cultivators attempt *gul*-making.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

The cultivation of drugs and narcotics like tobacco, opium is conspicuous by its absence. The area under production of betel leaves was very negligible, amounting to 20 and 5 acres respectively in Sawantwadi and Malvan talukas.

OIL-SEEDS.

Oil-seeds occupy nearly 4 per cent. of the gross cropped area in Malvan, Vengurla, Sawantwadi and Dapoli talukas. Cocoanut and sesamum are the only important oil-seeds; ground-nut and niger are grown in negligible quantities.

TABLE No. 18.

AREA UNDER OIL-SEEDS (TALUKA-WISE) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1955-56.

(In acres).

Taluka.	Edible Oil Seeds.					Total Oil-Seeds.*
	Ground-nut.	Cocoa-nut.	Sesa-mum.	Others.	Total.	
Dapoli ..	..	552	2,221	..	2,779	2,773
Mandangad ..	..	21	1,063	..	1,084	1,084
Khed ..	..	4	303	..	307	207
Chiplun ..	..	35	729	..	764	764
Guhagar ..	1	324	1,247	..	1,572	1,572
Sangameshwar ..	..	16	8	763	787	787

*Acreage under non-edible oil-seeds was nil.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.
OIL-SEEDS.

(In acres).

Taluka.	Edible Oil-Seeds.					Total Oil-Seeds.
	Ground-nut.	Cocoa-nut.	Sesa-mum.	Others.	Total.	
Ratnagiri	..	680	826	..	1,506	1,506
Lanje	..	9	1,210	..	1,219	1,219
Rajapur	..	201	1,453	..	1,654	1,654
Devgad	32	658	608	..	1,298	1,298
Kankavli	1	11	1,371	..	1,383	1,383
Malvan	406	4,264	728	..	5,398	5,398
Vengurla	..	4,570	442	..	5,012	5,012
Kudal	..	1,593	314	..	1,907	1,907
Sawantwadi	..	3,553	410	..	3,963	3,963
District—Total	440	16,491	12,933	763	30,627	30,627

Naral.

Cocoanuts (*Naral*) occupy more than 50 per cent. of the area under oil-seeds. In fact acreage under cocoanuts was the highest in the whole of Bombay State in 1955-56. Cocoanut gardening is usually concentrated on the sandy soils of the coast, but is also found in the interior. Most of the gardens are pretty old and, therefore, cultivators have mainly to look after their maintenance, which consists of (*i*) replacing old palms; (*ii*) clearing and weeding; (*iii*) manuring; (*iv*) irrigation; and (*v*) pest control.

(*i*) *Replacing old palms.*—Seedlings, about two years old, are either bought or prepared at home from the nuts of good (and early) bearing varieties for replacement. Palms, 25 to 30 years old, are considered suitable for this purpose. These nuts are planted at a distance of one to one and a half feet, slightly slanting, in well worked soils. Sprouting takes place after six months. One to two years old seedlings are planted in pits of size 2′ × 2′ × 3′, prepared specially as follows :—

Well-rotten farm yard manure, bone-meal (about 5 lbs.) and ash are put in the pit and the seedlings are planted nine inches below the ground. The pit is gradually filled in as the plant grows. Young plants are carefully manured and irrigated, without which the trunk does not grow uniformly and shows bulging. Those properly taken care of begin to yield fruit after five years on coastal sandy soils. Cocoanut palms in the interior begin to yield fruit two or three years later and continue to yield fruit for about 80 years or so. Ripe nuts are harvested by hand plucking once or twice a year. The average yield per tree in this district is said to be low and is estimated at 20 to 30 nuts per year, which is mainly because of the close planting and incidence of pests like beetles and rats.

(*ii*) *Weeding*.—During the rainy season, owing to abundant rain water, weeding alone is possible.

(*iii*) *Manuring*.—Before the onset of monsoon, cocoanut palms are manured with farm yard manures or twigs of trees like *bhad*, *karanj*, etc., are buried around the tree. Fish manure is also given at the rate of 10 lbs. per plant in August or September. Salt is sometimes applied in August at the rate of four lbs. per tree.

(*iv*) *Irrigation*.—All the cocoanut gardens are irrigated by well water. Adequate watering is necessary both in winter and summer and its absence results in low yield.

(*v*) *Pest control*.—*Rhinoceros beetle* is a serious pest of cocoanut palms. These beetles burrow in the crown and damage the shooting leaf and inflorescence. Its incidence can be reduced by keeping the gardens clean. The beetle is pulled out by means of iron wire and holes are plugged with sand and D.D.T. mixture. *Rhinoceros beetle* is largely responsible for the low yield of cocoanuts. *Red weevil* causes considerable damage. It gets into the holes made by the *Rhinoceros beetle* and breeds there. It damages the bark and the shoot. In some gardens, rats are also responsible for causing considerable damage. Owing to close planting of trees, rats can freely move from crown to crown and do the damage. These rats, however, come down in monsoon when arrangements can be made to protect the trees. Slanting iron sheets are fixed all around the trunk, at a height of 6-8 feet, to prevent the rats from climbing up again. Cleaning of the crown also helps in putting down the nuisance of rats and incidence of beetles.

Cocoanut Varieties.

Many varieties of cocoanut are known. *Banvali* is a well-known variety of the region. Differences in fruit colour such as green-brown or dark-brown are observed. There are different varieties according to the size of the fruit viz. small, medium and large. There are differences in the shapes of fruit also. Varieties also differ in the coarseness of husk or the sweetness of water in the fruit. Other varieties of cocoanuts observed here are those yielding nuts which are (a) round green, (b) green elongated, (c) reddish round, and (d) reddish elongated. Another variety known as *moha*, though famous for its sweet *kopra*, when wet, is not grown on a large scale because of its lesser yield and lower oil contents. It is also not possible to secure an assured supply of its seedling.

Cocoanut palms in this area were used mainly for tapping till 1946 and little attention was paid to their yield. With the enforcement of prohibition in 1946 attempts are being made to increase the yield of cocoanuts. Every part of cocoanut palm is useful. The fruit yields *kopra* and coir whereas shells are used for making several articles. The trunk of the tree, when cut longitudinally, can be used to serve as water channel; leaves are used for making mats (*zap*, *zavali*) which are used for roofing the huts; and midribs are used for making stick-brooms. The sap of cocoanut palm (*madi* now called *neera*) is a nourishing drink. Coastal inhabitants use *kopra* and cocoanut

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

OIL-SEEDS.

Til.

oil profusely in the preparation of daily meals. Cocoanut oil cake is considered to be an excellent cattle feed and is also used for manuring.

Sesamum (*til*) occupied 12,933 acres in 1955-56 of which nearly 60 per cent, were in Dapoli, Mandangad, Guhagar, Lanje, Rajapur and Kankavli talukas. Sesamum is taken either as a rotational crop with hill millets or as a sole crop on *varkas* lands. It does best, however, on light sandy loams. Sowing is done late in July and harvesting is complete by the end of October. Despite the fact that the acreage under it is considerable, little attention has been paid by the cultivators to grow it in a systematic manner and enhance its value as an important cash crop of the district. The annual yield of sesamum is about 300 lbs. per acre.

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

Of this category, the important crops grown are betel-nut and chillies. Ginger, cardamom and pepper are grown on a negligible scale. Production of turmeric is mainly undertaken in Malvan taluka.

TABLE No.

AREA UNDER CONDIMENTS AND SPICES (TALUKA-WISE) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1955-56.

(Area in acres).

Taluka.	Betel-nut.	Cardamom.	Chillies.	Ginger.	Pepper.	Turmeric.	Total.
Dapoli	1,390	..	27	..	..	..	1,417
Mandangad	155	..	37	..	..	..	192
Khed	14	..	108	..	..	..	122
Chiplun	7	..	80	..	..	..	87
Guhagar	341	..	15	..	..	..	356
Sangameshwar	73	8	41	6	..	..	128
Ratnagiri	290	..	163	5	..	3	461
Lanje	94	..	65	5	..	2	166
Rajapur	296	..	153	7	..	5	461
Deogad	100	..	162	..	..	2	264
Kankavli	4	..	105	3	6	..	118
Malvan	131	..	443	10	..	35	619
Vengurla	265	..	227	..	..	..	492
Kudal	73	..	402	..	..	..	475
Sawantwadi	562	..	577	..	..	4	1,143
District—Total	3,795	8	2,605	36	6	51	6,501

Supari (betelnut) is an important garden crop in Ratnagiri district and stands second in importance in the State. Most of these gardens date back to a considerable period and occupy a major portion of the area suitable for arecanut cultivation. There is, therefore, little scope for new gardens, though some attempts have been made to establish new ones which will receive lift irrigation water. Broadly, the principles involved in the upkeep of arecanut gardens are similar to those for cocoanut gardens. But as these gardens are situated on *varkas* lands, more care as regards watering, manuring, control of pests and diseases is necessary.

This palm requires ample supply of moisture in the soil and grows well in regions having plenty of rain. A cool, somewhat shady and moist atmosphere is favourable. As it is very sensitive to draught, an assured supply of irrigation water is necessary. Therefore, as soon as the rains are over, watering is commenced. If watering is delayed during October heat, the nuts begin to drop. *Varkas* lands require to be terraced well so that water can be spread throughout the garden by means of water channels. It is also necessary, at times, to propagate colonies of earth-worms to make the soil more deep and airy. These palms also require protection from western and southern winds. Arecanut palms generally begin to yield fruit from the fifth or sixth year and live for about 50 years.

Manuring generally consists of leaf-mould and earth and is done before the onset of monsoon. The yield per tree ranges between 200 to 400 nuts. Ripe nuts are harvested, semi-dehusked, dried and sold to Bombay merchants. *Koleroga* is a serious disease of the arecanut in Dapoli and Guhagar talukas. Spraying of 5 : 5 : 50 Bordeaux mixture is recommended to control this disease.

Mirchi.

Next in importance are chillies (*mirchi*) which occupied more than one third of the area under condiments and spices in 1955-56. Chillies are sown after the heavy rains of July. Seedlings are prepared on raised ground and transplanting is done in August in flat beds or on ridges and furrows. These beds are manured at the rate of 10-15 cart loads of farm yard manure per acre. Top-dressing of Ammonium sulphate at the rate of 80 lbs. per acre is also given. After the monsoon, water is supplied at intervals of six days. Picking starts from October and is over in about a month. Annual yield per acre comes to around 1,000 lbs. Chillies are also grown as a [illegible] crop.

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. FIBRES.

*Fibres occupied a small area. The following table shows area under fibres in 1955-56.

TABLE No. 20.

AREA UNDER FIBRES (TALUKAWISE) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1955-56.

Taluka.	Jute.	Sann-Hemp (Bombay Hemp.)	Ambadi (Deccan Hemp).	Total Fibre.
Dapoli	....	25	....	25
Mandangad	....	7	....	7
Khed	....	6	5	11
Chiplun	14	....	....	14
Guhagar	....	33	....	33
Sangameshwar	....	15	10	25
Ratnagiri	....	....	....	....
Lanja	....	20	....	20
Rajapur	....	865	11	876
Deogad	....	476	2	478
Kankavli	....	53	....	53
Malvan	....	101	....	101
Vengurla	....	14	....	14
Kudal	....	22	....	22
Sawantwadi	....	83	....	83
District, Total ..	14	1,720	28	1,762

Sann.

Sann (Bombay-Hemp) is an important fibre crop of this district which occupied nearly seven per cent of the area under this crop in Bombay State in 1955-56. Its cultivation is particularly concentrated in Deogad, Rajapur and Malvan talukas. It is also taken on *varkas* lands. It is a *kharif* crop sown in August. It is also taken in *rabi* season after harvesting of paddy and matures in about four and half months. The stalks are cut close to the ground and are left in the field for two or three days for drying and shedding of leaves. Small bundles of the stalks are then prepared and carried to their retting place, where they are kept in a vertical position in water for three or four days, which facilitates loosening of the bark at the butt-end. The bundles are then horizontally submerged in water with heavy stone slabs on them for eight to ten days. By this time the fibre gets separated from the woody stem and comes of easily when stripped by hand. The stripped material is beaten on stone or wood and then washed in water in a manner in which a washerman handles clothes while washing. *Sann* fibre is used for making fishing nets, ropes, strings, etc.

*Cotton is not grown in Ratnagiri district. During the period 1818-1848, however, several experiments were made to introduce cotton cultivation. But they bore no fruit.

The following table gives talukawise distribution of acreage underfruits (fresh and dry) in Ratnagiri District in 1955-1956 :—

TABLE No. 21.

AREA (TALUKAWISE) UNDER FRUITS (FRESH AND DRY) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1955-56.

(In acres).

	Fresh Fruits						Dry Fruits.			Total Fruits (Fresh and Dry).
	Banana	Mango	Pine-apple.	Jack-Fruits	Others	Total	Cashew nut	Others.	Total	
Dapoli ..	19	1,254	2	..	59	1,334	..	..	..	1,334
Mandangad ..	3	862	..	..	..	865	..	..	..	865
Khed .	5	80	..	..	..	85	..	..	..	85
Chiplun ..	21	109	..	..	78	208	..	..	..	208
Guhagar ..	38	164	..	9	..	211	..	..	..	211
Sangameshwar ..	18	74	..	25	..	117	17	..	17	134
Ratnagiri .	47	2,348	..	63	..	2,458	175	..	175	2,633
Lanja ..	22	109	..	..	..	131	..	..	..	131
Rajapur ..	22	418	..	..	..	440	..	..	..	440
Deogad ..	48	1,045	..	..	..	1,093	10	..	10	1,103
Kankavli ..	38	190	..	..	..	228	..	..	..	228
Malvan ..	75	859	..	..	..	934	944	..	944	1,878
Vengurla ..	64	586	..	103	..	753	1,801	..	1,801	2,554
Kudal ..	126	..	..	..	..	126	577	..	577	703
Sawantwadi ..	111	58	..	..	..	169	995	..	995	1,164
District : Total ..	657	8,156	2	200	137	9,152	4,519	..	4,519	13,671

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
FRUITS.
Amba.

Mango (*amba*) is one of the most important crops of this district and occupied about 60 per cent. of the total area under fruits. In fact, in 1955-56, it stood next to Surat district in mango gardening. Hill--slopes near the coast where drainage is assured and climatic conditions are ideal, present most suitable site for mango cultivation. It is taken as a garden crop and varieties grown are mostly grafted ones; country or *raival* varieties are sparingly taken. The grafts are generally obtained from nurseries. Cultivation practices of mango are different in different tracts. On *katals* (bare rocks) mangoes have to be well taken care of in the early stage. Earthing has to be done regularly to give support and also to provide sufficient ground for the feeding roots to grow and develop. After three years when roots have penetrated deep, watering is not required though thereafter manures are added to help their vigorous growth. On the wind-ward sides (i.e. the southern and the western sides) a small semi-circular stone wall (*gadaga*) is constructed to avoid uprooting of the trees by strong winds. This protection is very necessary as the roots of trees on *katals* do not go deep but spread all over. It also facilitates manuring. The trees on *katals* are dwarf and bushy, but this facilitates plucking of fruits and better care of inflorescence. The yield, is however, moderate. On better soils, the plant branches profusely and bears fruit abundantly. On low-lying lands the plants grow very high.

Planting of mango is done usually during April-May or August-October. Except on *katals*, planting is generally not done during heavy rains in June and July, because on low-lying lands water remains stagnant which the mango plants cannot tolerate. Summer planting (in April-may) is done only if water for irrigation is available in sufficient quantities. Pits of size 3′ × 3′ × 3′ are prepared and filled up with good soil which is mixed with farm yard manure and compost. At the base of the pit is spread a layer of raw bones. At the time of planting, the grafts are so planted that the position of the roots as it was in the pits is maintained. The joint of the graft is kept slightly above the ground as a safeguard against the white-ant pest. Subsequently, while earthing up, it is covered up as strong winds might damage the tree at this very point. At the time of planting, fish meal or bone meal (which is locally available in sufficient quantities) is used at the rate of 10 to 15 lbs., per plant. The bearing trees are later on annually manured during August-September at the rate of 20 lbs., of bone meal or fish meal. Application of crude salt at the rate of four lbs., per tree is also done by some cultivators as it is supposed to inhibit vegetative growth and thus encourage fruit bearing. After planting of grafts is over, watering during winter and summer is done for three years regularly by digging the ground and loosening the soil near the trunk. Manuring is done during monsoon and plants are also earthed up at the same time. Mango grafts begin to bear fruit from the fifth year. The grafted varieties are harvested by the end of April, and therefore, unlike the *raival* ones, do not suffer much damage due to cyclones in May.

Amba.

Nearly 90 per cent. of the area under mango is under alphonso (*apus*) which is considered to be the best variety among mangoes and possesses very delicious taste, inviting fragrance, the best keeping quality and is fibreless. The alphonso mango plant does not necessarily bear fruit every year; alternate bearing is more usual. Therefore, with a view to ensuring steady yield year after year periodical planting is done in the gardens, though this is not the surest way of overcoming the periodicity in the yield of mangoes. As the exact causes of the periodicity are not known, sure and standard remedies have not been found so far. Mango flowering takes place generally in three flushes at an interval of one month. The number of trees per acre varies from 50 to 70, depending upon the spacing provided for. On *katal* where the growth is bushy, the spacing is about 20 to 25 feet while in low-lying soils it varies from 30 to 40 feet between the trees eitherway. Spacing, say up to 30 to 40 feet, depending on the nature of soil, is supposed to be beneficial as the entire crown of the tree is fully exposed to the sun from all sides. This makes available ample sunshine to the maturing fruit, facilitates tillage, helps insecticide operations and reduces the possibility of attack by pests and diseases. On maturity, the oil glands in the skin of the fruit become conspicuous; the fruit becomes turgid and shows depression near the hold of the stalk. Picking of matured fruit starts from February onwards on Vengurla side where flowering starts in November. At Ratnagiri and in the northern area, as fruit bearing is a little late, picking is done during April and May. The yield of alphonso mangoes varies from 400 to 500 fruit per tree. Some trees yield fruit even up to 2,000. An average fruit of alphonso weighs six to eight ounces.

After picking is over, the fruit is exposed to air for a day and then packed in wooden boxes (20″ × 12″ × 12″) having slits in between the planks for aeration. They are then transported to Bombay and other upghat markets. For local consumption the fruit is ripened by covering it in layers of paddy straw. When the fruit begins to change colour, it is taken out and brought to market for sale. Local consumption is of the order of 20 per cent. alphonso, 60 to 70 per cent. *raival* and varieties like *payari*. Most of the *raival* produce is locally consumed for preparing pickles, *muramba* (jam), *amboshi* (dehydrated slices of pulp), etc. The juice of ripe mangoes is either consumed as it is or is made into *ambapoli* or boiled into *mava*.

Kele.

Banana (*kele*) is grown on a small scale. Planting is done during July and August. A pit of size 2′ × 2′ × 2′ is dug and filled up with compost or farm yard manure, ash and soil. Fish manure is applied at the rate of about four lbs. *Basrai* variety begins to flower after six to eight months and takes four more months for ripening. The land is well suited to the cultivation of this variety and its production can be increased considerably if market and adequate watering facilities are available. Other varieties grown are *rajeli*, *rasbeli*, *kanher*, *sahasraphal*, *mendal*, *velchi* and *lalkel*. They begin to flower in eight to ten months' time (sometimes even twelve months). The flower spike (*kel-ful*) and unripe fruit are used as vegetable.

Leaves of banana plant are used for serving meals. They are also used for *bidi* making. Its stem fibre, known as *sopat*, is used for securing grafts.

FRUITS.
Kaju.

Cashew-nut (*Kaju*) stands next in importance to mango and occupies nearly one-third of the total area under fruits. Vengurla, Sawantwadi, Malvan and Kudal talukas having a coastal climate, the red laterites and an abundant rainfall averaging 125 inches a year, provide ideal conditions for its growth. It is generally propagated by means of seeds; only recently it has come to be successfully propagated by asexual (vegetative) methods. With the beginning of the monsoon, two or three seeds are directly sown in pits which are about 12′ to 15′ apart, though the required distance is about 20′. The unwanted seedlings are removed. Sometimes, seedlings are also prepared and then planted at the beginning of the monsoon or just after the heavy showers (i.e. in August). The plants are generally planted around the field or on the borders or on slopy soils; but very few cultivators have planted cashew-nut in a systematic manner. The cashew plant does not require much attention once the seedlings get established. The tree starts bearing fruit in the fifth year after planting and thereafter it bears regularly. However, it begins to bear fully from the seventh year onwards. The trees begin to flower in December-January and continue to do so till March; and the fruit gets ready during February-April.

The major operations in cashew-nut cultivation are planting, watching and harvesting. The cost of planting and raising the seedlings in its initial stages, comes to Rs. 60 to Rs. 70 per acre; harvesting and watching costs Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 per acre every year. The cashew-fruit consists of the cashew apple and the cashew-nut. The fruit when ripe is plucked for eating or for sale and the nut dried in the sun and stored. Sometimes the nuts in green condition are decorticated and sold in the local market.

FODDER CROPS.

The following table shows talukawise acreage under fodder crops in the district in 1955-56:—

TABLE No. 22.

AREA UNDER FODDER CROPS (TALUKAWISE) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1955-56.

(In acres)

Taluka	Guinea Grass.	Grass and Babuls.	Total Fodder Crops.
Dapoli	....	37,987	37,987
Mandangad	....	4,314	4,314
Khed .. .	....	4.425	4,425
Chiplun	38,864	....	38,864
Guhagar	....	766	766
Sangameshwar	....	1,986	1,986
Ratnagiri	....	34,367	34,367
Lanja	....	29,366	29,366
Rajapur	....	28,668	28,668
Deogad	....	9,065	9,065
Kankavli	....	7,617	7,617
Malvan	....	3,481	3,481
Vengurla	....	1,806	1,806
Kudal	....	229	229
Sawantwadi	....	20	20
District: Total ..	38,864	1,64,097	2,02,961

FODDER CROPS.

According to the Season and Crop Report of 1955-56, nearly 23 per cent. of the gross cropped area was under fodder crops, mostly grass and babuls. Generally speaking, no special efforts are made for growing fodder. Naturally, yield per acre is not uniform throughout the district and comes to two to three tons per acre. The grass which grows during monsoon on rocky lands and on fallows is used to a large extent for thatching purposes.

VEGETABLES.

The following table shows the distribution of area under vegetables in the district in 1955-56 :—

TABLE No. 23.

AREA UNDER VEGETABLES (TALUKAWISE) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1955-56.

(In acres)

	Potato.	Sweet Potato.	Onion.	Suran (Elephant's foot).	Radish.	Cabbage.	Brinjal.	Tomato.	Bhendi (Lady's finger).	Musk Melon (Kharbuj)	Other Vegetables			Total Vegetables.
											Winter.	Summer.	Total.	
Dapoli ..	2	8	..	..	..	3	23	..	..	..	..	..	..	36
Mandangad ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	14	..	..	..	..	5	5	19
Khed ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	75	75	75
Chiplun ..	..	..	..	16	8	1	52	..	..	..	1,506	..	1,506	1,583
Guhagar ..	..	..	..	..	5	4	37	..	..	..	23	..	23	69
Sangameshwar ..	..	14	..	3	3	..	27	..	..	12	8	..	8	67
Ratnagiri ..	..	20	..	..	9	20	31	9	6	..	..	..	..	95
Lanje ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	41	41	41
Rajapur ..	..	11	1	..	1	2	21	..	..	..	..	..	..	36
Deogad ..	..	..	..	..	3	..	27	..	4	1	..	..	..	35
Kankavli ..	..	8	..	..	..	..	31	..	..	..	..	43	43	82
Malvan ..	..	23	40	35	82	1	91	..	82	..	6	32	38	392
Vengurla ..	..	..	..	..	12	..	9	..	12	106	19	6	25	164
Kudal ..	..	4	100	1	..	..	30	..	16	..	38	..	38	189
Sawantwadi ..	..	..	114	8	80	..	75	..	45	7	15	..	15	344
District Total ..	2	88	255	63	203	31	468	9	165	126	1,615	202	1,817	3,227

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
VEGETABLES.

As compared to other districts of the state, area under vegetables in Ratnagiri is much less due to prohibitive cost of production resulting from poor soils, inadequate irrigation facilities and availability of vegetables at comparatively cheaper rates from adjoining upghat areas of Kolhapur, Belgaum and Karad. The rainfall in the district being heavy, the *kharif* season is not a proper vegetable season. Vegetable cultivation is mostly limited to the period commencing from post-paddy harvesting to the end of February. As a result, large scale cultivation of vegetables is rarely to be found. It is concentrated mainly near towns. Vegetables are also taken as inter-crops in the gardens, which also explains the absence of uniform cultural operations in the district for an individual vegetable. There is, however, a tendency to grow vegetables in the order as described in the following paragraphs and it is presumed that adherence to it would ensure a steady supply in the market and keep the grower busy during the season.

Green Vegetables.

Green vegetables that are commonly grown are *padval* (snake gourd), *dudhi* (bottle gourd), *karle* (bitter gourd), *dodka* (ridge gourd), *lalbhopla* (red pumpkin), *bhendi* (lady's finger), *vange* (brinjal) and *belwange* (tomato). In the case of gourds and red pumpkins, land is prepared by digging the soil in May, pulverising it and making ring-type seed beds. The seed beds which are usually *rabbed*—i.e. burnt with leaves etc., have a diameter of two and a half feet and are spaced at a distance of ten feet from each other. Before the seed is sown, they are given farm yard manure or compost at the rate of 15 lbs per seed bed. Sowing is generally done in the second week of May (two to four weeks before the onset of monsoon), the seed rate being four to six seeds per bed. Watering is done during this period at an interval of about four days and creepers are trailed on supports (*mandav*) so that before heavy downpour begins, the crop is well-established in the soil. Picking starts from August onwards and continues till the end of September. Pumpkins get ready by the end of September. *Bhendi* is also sown early in May to ensure its establishment before the middle of June. The seed is dibbled at a distance of two to three feet both ways at the rate of six to eight lbs. per acre. Before the seed is sown, 10 to 15 cart-loads of farm yard manure are applied to each acre of land. Irrigation is done during May at an interval of four days. Picking starts from the middle of July and continues till mid-August. This crop grows luxuriantly in *kharif* season. Its annual yield is about 4,000 lbs. per acre. [Brinjal and tomato are grown little late i.e. after the heavy rains of July.] Seedlings are prepared on raised ground and transplanting is done in August two or three feet apart both ways, in flat beds or on ridges and furrows. These beds are manured at the rate of one cart-load of farm yard manure per three to four gunthas. Top-dressing of ammonium sulphate at the rate of one maund per acre is also given. Supports are given to tomato crop by careful farmers by fixing small bamboo sticks near the plant and by securing the plants to the supports. Water is supplied at intervals of six days. Picking starts from October and is over in about four weeks. These vegetables are also taken in *rabi* season.

VEGETABLES.
Leafy Vegetables.

Leafy vegetables like *palak*, *pokla*, *methi* (fenugreek) and *kothimbir* (coriander) are sown in flat beds by the end of July or early in August. Farm yard manure is applied at the rate of 15 cart-loads per acre. Sometimes irrigation is also given, though it is not very necessary. Picking is done during September and October, the annual yield varying between 6,000 and 8,000 lbs. per acre. These vegetables are also taken in *rabi* and hot weather seasons.

This tract is not suited to the cultivation of root and tuber type of vegetables, though scattered areas can be found under *suran* and potato. Onion, radish and sweet potato are also grown in some places. Cultivation of onion is concentrated in Kudal and Sawantwadi talukas while radish is mostly taken in Malvan and Sawantwadi talukas. It is grown all the year round and roots are picked after five or six weeks. Usually it is taken on the borders of the flat beds on which leafy vegetables are grown. Recently, there is observed a tendency to increase the production of sweet potato.

Vegetables imported in the district are cabbage, cauliflower, knolkhol, green tomato, *gawar*, *methi*, *tondli*, pumpkins, onions, potatoes, sweet-potatoes and brinjals. Though the import is continuous, its magnitude increases from October onwards.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

Owing to heavy rains and undulating nature of the terrace, agricultural operations in this district exhibit a marked dissimilarity with those in upghat region. In the case of paddy, cultural practices are more or less uniform while they differ in the case of *nagli*, kodra, pulses, etc.

Ploughing

Ploughing (*ukhalani* in the case of paddy) is done every year to open the soil by means of a wooden plough with the main object of puddling the land and making it ready for transplanting. Land is ploughed in the first week of June immediately after the advent of monsoon as it is not possible to plough these lands after the harvest when they set very hard on drying on account of intensive puddling done to them in the process of paddy cultivation. The soils being of light type, deep ploughing is not necessary. The plough being light in weight, opens the soil to a depth of three to six inches. An area of about one and a half acres is ploughed every day. Usually two to three ploughings are given for paddy crop. The cost of ploughing comes to Rs. 10 to Rs. 12 per acre.

Puddling.

After the first ploughing in the beginning of June when the soil is semi-dry, fields are left under standing water for about two-three weeks. (This practice facilitates raising of paddy seedlings during this period.) By end of June or beginning of July, the land is puddled by ploughing it round and round under stagnant water condition (approximately three-four times) till it reaches a particular muddy physical condition suitable for the growth of paddy. The idea underlying puddling (*chikhalani*) is to make the soil so sticky as

to prevent percolation below the surface. Deep and carefully cultivated soils require only two ploughings while light soils having organic matter require more ploughings.

Planking.

After puddling the field for one or two days, a wooden plank (*gutaphali* or *alwat*) is dragged by bullocks over the field under standing water couditions. Since puddling leaves the field in uneven condition, the planking operation (*guta phiravane*) leaves the field in a more or less flat condition to facilitate transplanting of the seedlings by labourers (usually women).

Bunding.

All paddy lands are divided into small parcels (*khachars*) of different size with bunds on all the four sides to hold water, depending on the size of holdings and the slope of the land. If superfluous water accumulates, they are cut open on one side to drain it out.

Since success of the paddy crop depends on the careful maintenance and the up-keep of bunds of these parcels, cultivators restore the bunds in a good condition before the on-set of monsoon. They plug the crab and rat burrows, repair the breaches and the water-weirs, which are also strengthened by stone-pitching. These breaches might otherwise result in draining away of water from the parcel and might even cause drought condition. The paddy lands on hill slopes are similarly looked after. Water is let out from the paddy fields at higher level to those at lower level by means of a device called *moos* (just a small weir through which water passes) whose base and sides are pitched with stones to avoid washing away of the bund. In the case of salt lands, the outer bund, which protects the fields within the *khar* lands, is constantly watched and well looked after. For, if the tidal water once gets into the field through breaches or sluice gates, all the fields become unfit for cultivation.

Draining.

The soils of this district are well drained and as such draining in its real sense is not considered necessary. However, in low-lying soils known as *mala* soils, it is at times necessary to open suitable drains in order to drain away extra water coming from hills etc. Again, after the first ploughing in June, water is made to accumulate in the parcels up to a height of three and a half feet, the excess being drained out through the openings temporarily made at the convenient points in the bund.

Manuring.

Though paddy is the main crop, manuring of paddy is not usually done on a large scale. The present practice of *rabbing* is supposed to add some manurial ingredients to the soil through ash. As it gives a better start to the seedlings, no farm yard manure is prepared. The fields do not get adequate supply of bulky or organic manure and, therefore, the texture of the soil gets hard and adversely affects the growth of crop. The cultivator, applies fertilizers (like sulphate of ammonia) only to seed beds and that too if found essential; otherwise, manurial requirements of the soil are fulfilled by *rabbing*.

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

Owing to the propaganda carried on by the Department of Agriculture, many cultivators have realised the importance of scientific manuring. The Department advocates (a) preparation of compost from farm yard material which abundantly grows on bunds and other waste lands ; (b) utilisation of *rab* material for composting and making farm yard manure and (c) green manuring from plants like *shevri*. *sann*, etc., which are suitable for this purpose. After organic manures are applied at the time of puddling, the Department also recommends the following schedule for the use of fertilizers preferably mixed with wet earth and made into small balls so that plants get their food gradually :—

Stage.	Fertilizers Recommended.	Quantity. (Per acre).
		Lbs.
At puddling	Bone-meal or Rock-phosphate ..	320
At tilling	Groundnut cake	114
(Two to three weeks after transplanting).	Sulphate of Ammonia	40
Pre-flowering	Groundnut cake	114
(Three to four weeks after the second dose).	Sulphate of Ammonia ..	40

In southern parts, use of fish manure for paddy and *nagli* at the time of transplanting is much in vogue. About six to eight maunds of fish manure are used per acre. No manuring is done to salt lands.

Sowing.

Sowing operations start from the middle of May. For most of the crops, seeds are sown for starting the crop, but in some cases where seeds cannot be produced easily, suitable parts of plants like cuttings, root, etc., are planted. In case of paddy, the seed is sown for raising seedlings or for starting the crop. Usually, the sprouted seed (*rahu*) is sown on *varkas* soils while for low-lying areas seedlings are raised for transplanting. Seeds meant for raising seedlings are either broadcast or sown in lines. The seed rate in the case of paddy varies from 16 to 20 lbs. per acre for transplanted paddy and from 60 to 80 lbs. for paddy broadcast. Some cultivators follow the practice of dry sowing (*dhul-waf-pera*) i.e., sowing in dry soil just before rains.

The following statement shows sowing periods of some of the important crops in the district :—

Crops.		Sowing Times.
Paddy (*kharif*)	..	May-June.
Paddy (*rabi*)	..	November-December.
Ragi (*Nagli*)	..	June-July.

Crops.		Sowing time.
Kodra, Sava, etc.	..	June-July.
Kulthi, Udid, etc.	..	July.
Tur	..	July-August.
Kulthi (*rabi*)	..	November-December.
Udid (*rabi*)	..	November-December.
Wal (*rabi*)	..	November-December.

Interculturing.

Interculturing implies culturing or tilling or stirring the soil near about the plants. It is done by means of *kolpi,* a hand hoe with three prongs, with a view to encourage a deep root system, to aerate the soil and to mix the manures in a better way. In case of paddy as also where transplanting is done in line, two to three interculturings are usually given.

Weeding.

The weeds that are in line with the crop escape the hoe during interculturing. They are removed by hand with the help of a weeding hook (*khurpi*). Usually one weeding is done for paddy after transplanting. In case of broadcast fields as also where transplanting is not done in line, however, no such operation is possible.

Harvesting.

The early paddy crop gets ready for harvest by the end of September (*kapani* or *kadhani*) whereas the mid-late and late varieties get ready by November or so. This operation is performed by means of an implement known as sickle (*vila*). The paddy crop is cut close to the ground and allowed to dry in the field for 2-3 days, then bundled and taken to threshing yards. In case of *ragi,* earheads are cut and then threshed. The following statement shows the time of harvest for some important crops :

Crops.		Sowing time.
Paddy (*kharif*)	..	September-November.
Paddy (*rabi*)	..	March-April.
Ragi (*kharif*)	..	October-November.
Kodra, vari, etc.	..	October-November.
Udid, Kulthi, etc.	..	October-November.
Pulses (*rabi*)	..	February-March.

Threshing.

Paddy crop is usually threshed by beating the bundles against some hard surface like wooden block etc. In case of *nagli* and pulses, threshing is done by means of trampling under bullocks' feet or by beating the material with sticks. After threshing (*malani* or *zodni*) grain is winnowed in order remove thereform pieces of leaves, stems, etc. The straw is stacked for fodder.

CHAPTER 5.

—

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

Storing.

After threshing, the grain is thoroughly dried in the sun and stored for consumption and for seed purposes. The farmers usually keep their own seed. However, this being a deficit district, grains are not stored on a large scale. Farmers store grain in wooden storehouses (*kothars*) or in bamboo baskets (*kangis*) whose size depends upon the quantity to be stored. *Kangis* are plastered on all sides by cow-dung to keep away the insects from entering inside.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

Soil and climatic conditions influence the use of particular types of agricultural implements. In Ratnagiri district, few implements are required for performing agricultural operations mainly because of the predominance of paddy cultivation throughout the district. The following table shows the extent and use of various kinds of agricultural machinery and implements (talukawise) in the district in 1956 :—

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

TABLE No. 24.

AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY AND IMPLEMENTS—RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1956.

Name of Taluka.	Ploughs.		Carts.	Sugarcane Crushers.		Oil Engines with pumps for irrigation purposes.	Electric pumps for irrigation purposes.	Tractors.		Ghanies.	
	Wooden.	Iron.		Worked by power.	Worked by bullocks			Government.	Private.	5 Seers and over	Less than 5 seers.
Mandangad ..	6,263	3	185	..	7	7	....	..	.	..	26
Dapoli ..	677	2	677	..	..	21	....	..	..	36	41
Khed ..	16,635	2	599	..	..	..	....	..	..	..	..
Chiplun ..	14,525	6	786	..	..	1	....	..	..	..	11
Guhagar ..	8,192	20	203	..	..	9	....	..	..	35	34
Deorukh ..	17,640	1	449	..	1	4	....	..	..	33	35
Lanje ..	13,656	..	293	..	..	..	....	..	..	20	46
Ratnagiri ..	15,325	34	269	..	1	9	2	..	..	30	96
Rajapur ..	13,383	72	428	..	8	7	....	..	..	52	81
Kankavli ..	19,167	23	440	..	13	2	....	..	..	19	9
Deogad ..	15,356	9	204	..	3	2	....	..	..	24	32
Kudal ..	15,228	..	246	..	..	2	1	1	..	8	4
Malvan ..	12,419	9	366	2	..	..	....	.	..	83	..
Sawantwadi ..	17,076	..	464	..	4	1	....	..	..	5	..
Vengurla ..	7,833	1	61	..	..	6	....	..	..	13	13
Total ..	1,98,877	162	5,679	2	37	71	3	1	..	358	428

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.
Plough.

Plough (*nangar*) is made entirely of *sag, bhendi, ain, khair, chinch, shivan, kinjal, fanas* or any other type of wood available. It consists of several pieces viz., body (*khod*), shoe (*khadsa*), share (*phal*), beam (*hala* or *isad*), handle (*rumane*), hand grip (*muth*), and wedge (*phaletoo*). The body and the handle are manufactured in two separate pieces. The beam is mortised into the body. The end of the share working in the soil is held in position with the shoe by a round or oval iron ring, (*wasave*) and the other end is held in position by insertion of a wooden peg intc the scooped end of the share. The other end of the peg is mortised into the angular position between the body and the shoe. Some farmers do not use the device of a peg fastener but instead, the other end of the share is hooked 90° and hammered on the shoe. The body and the shoe form one integral unit. The plough, the handle and the grip are also manufactured in one integral unit.

Plough is operated by a pair of bullocks and a driver. The area ploughed in a day comes to about 15 gunthas (one half acre). The adjustments to vary the depth of working of the implement are made by means of shifting the hitching point closer or further away from the implement, for which special notches are made at the hitching end of the beam. The plough in this district is used more for puddling operations. It is remarkably light in weight being made of wood and can be easily pulled by the rather weak bullocks of the Konkan region. As the plough is mostly worked under relatively wet conditions of land, it does not last as long as it does in some other districts. Some details about life, weight, etc. of the implement are as under :

Life of the implement	3 to 4 years.
Weight of the implement	25 to 40 lbs.
Depth of the furrow	2 to 4 inches.
Width of the furrow	4 to 5 inches.
Cost of the implement*	Rs. 12 to Rs. 20

The use of improved type of small iron plough, the Meston plough, has been recommended for this area. An eminent manufacturer of Satara has manufactured a small iron plough with a wooden beam, which is found very suitable in this tract. However, since the implement requires more tractive force, many cultivators who have weak bullocks are reluctant to use it.

Clod crusher.

Clod crusher (*maind*) is operated by a pair of bullocks and a driver and an area of one and a half to two and a half acres is covered in a day. It is a wooden plank, six to eight feet in length and 9″ × 2″ in section, made of the same material as that of

*Refers to 1955.

plough or of any heavy local wood available on the farm. A beam generally made of bamboo, is fixed in the centre of the plank or bifurcated beam is used. This beam is hitched on the yoke. This clod crusher is very light to operate. Some details about life, weight, etc. of the implement are as under—

Life of the implement ..	..	..	4 to 6 *years.*
Weight of the implement	..	..	25 to 35 lbs.
Cost of the implement* ..	..	..	Rs. 6 to Rs. 8.

It is used for crushing the clods and levelling the puddled field so as to make a better soil bed for transplanting the paddy seedlings.

Peg tooth harrow or Gute-phali.

Peg tooth harrow (*gutephali*) is operated by a pair of bullocks and a driver. It consists of wooden headpiece about six feet in length and 6″ × 3″ in section. The wooden pegs (about 3″ – 5″ in length, 2″ in breadth and 2″ – 3″ apart) are fixed on to one side of the headpiece. Bifurcated ends of the beam are fixed into the headpiece.

This implement is used for levelling the land and collecting the weeds after puddling and an area of one and a half to two and a half acres is covered in a day. It is also used in some places after the sowing operation in order to have more or less uniform sowing when paddy is broadcast. As it has been provided with the pegs (teeth), it removes the bunches of crowded and sprouted seeds. Some details about the life, weight, etc. of the implement are as under—

Life of the implement	..	10 to 15 years.
Weight of the implement	..	30 to 40 lbs.
Cost of the implement*	..	Rs. 8 to Rs. 10.

Leveller.

Leveller (*petari*) is operated by a pair of bullocks and a labourer and consists of a wooden frame the space in which is filled with *bamboo* strips. The top of the frame carries a handle. On the lower and outer sides of the frame bifurcated ends of the beam are loosely fitted with pegs.

It is used for levelling the field in *rabi* season. When the implement is worked by holding the frame vertically, the soil is collected. When the desired place is reached, the frame is tied down so that the soil may fall out. The use of this implement, however, is not very common.

Hand tools.

Usual hand tools as well as other special kinds of hand tools used in this district are described below :—

(*a*) Rake (*ale*) consists of an 18 to 24 inches long and 3″ × 2″ section headpiece. Wooden teeth are fixed in the headpiece. Tooth is 4″ – 5″ long and about ¾ to 1 inch in diameter. One bamboo beam is fixed in the centre of the headpiece. The beam is five to six

*Refers to 1955.

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

feet in length and one and a half to two inches in diameter. In some cases, iron nails are fixed instead of wooden teeth.

It is used for collecting dry leaves and grass for *rab*, and also for collecting threshed material on the yard. In garden lands it is used for even distribution of seeds sown.

(b) Fork (*baila*) consists of a wooden pole six to eight feet in length with two to three inches diameter and tapered at the top. About three and a half feet from the top a forked branch is secured to the pole in between two horizontal pegs mortised into the pole. The space within the arms of the fork is interwoven with coir strings. This device is used for lifting and carrying a bundle of thorny branches collected for fencing. The tapered end is pierced into the bundle. The pole is held vertical in the hand close to the shoulder and the interwoven portion of the fork rests on the head.

(c) Water splasher (*shimpi* or *shelne*) is a kind of wooden hopper with a concave cavity in the centre of about six inches circular curvature and is used for watering seed beds by splashing water from nearby water channels.

Other hand tools used in standing position while working are narrow spade (*kudali*), flat spade, or shovel (*phavade*), pickaxe (*tikav*), axe (*kurhad*), wood-cutting big knife (*paor, pankatre* or *koyta*), mallet (*dhepla* or *mogar*), sickle (*vila*), weeding hook (*khurpi*), crowbar (*pahar*) and spear (*phendas*),

Bullock carts.

The cart used in this district is designed to be considerably smaller in size than those to be found in other districts of the State because of low pulling power of the bullocks. Other details regarding the cart are as under :—

Length of the box	..	4½ to 5 ft.
Breadth of the box	..	2½ to 3 ft.
Depth of the box	..	1½ ft.
Wheel diameter	..	3 ft.
Wheel rim width	..	2 inches.
Cost*	..	Rs. 200—Rs. 300.

The base of the box is fitted with bamboo strips secured with coir string, as against plank box base used in other districts. This base is much lighter in weight than the plank base. The hub of the wheel is made of *khair* wood while all the other parts are made of *sag* wood.

Persian wheel.

Persian wheel (*rahat*) is a common device for lifting water from the wells. *Mhots* are not in common use. The other water lifting device is locally known as *okti*. In this device a vertical pole is fixed on the top of the well and a horizontal pole is hinged at a height of about ten feet at the bifurcated end of the vertical pole. The length of the horizontal pole is about 20-30 ft. This horizontal pole is counter-balanced by tying heavy stone at one end and the bucket

*Refers to 1965

at the other end (through the rope or the pole). The farmer stands on the edge of the well and lowers down the bucket and works it by emptying it in the water channel.

Paddy is harvested by manual labour by means of sickles. The cut material is tied into small sheaves or bundles and left in the field for drying. When the heads are completely dry, they are struck against a hard ground surface (*khale*) or on ordinary wooden frame work so as to separate the paddy grains from the ear-heads. This material is winnowed as usual and transported to local rice mills for dehusking. Some farmers possess small stone mill or *ghirat* to husk paddy for local consumption. For crop protection work, sprayers and dusters are being advocated. Bucket sprayers and holder sprayers are more common. Peerless type dust-guns are also found quite suitable.

Live-stock.

Live-stock plays a very important part in agriculture and constitutes one of the farmer's coveted possessions. Because of agricultural backwardness of the tract, existence of small holdings and peculiar physical features, there is little scope for the use of mechanical devices for agricultural operations and hence cattle labour has to be largely relied upon. A pair of bullocks for draught, a cow or buffalo for milk, draught and manure; and in addition, a few sheep, goats and poultry are to be commonly found with a large number of farmers. Further, in rural areas a farmer's status is judged by the number of cattle he maintains. In fact no farmer can do farming economically without the aid of live-stock.

Given below are the results of the live-stock census conducted in 1951 and 1956 by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Bombay :

TABLE No. 25.

BOVINE POPULATION IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT—*1951* AND *1956.*

Classification of Cattle.	Cow Class.		Buffalo Class.	
	(1951).	(1956).	(1951).	(1956).
Males (Over 3 years)—				
(1) Breeding bulls ..	6,733	2,342	1,307	1,702
(2) Working bullocks ..	3,15,336	3,29,177	34,948	35,675
(3) Other bulls	8,075	6,996	1,383	920
Females (Over 3 years)—				
(1) In milk	95,365	82,178	35,764	31,148
(2) Dry	91,953	82,654	20,553	19.461
(3) Not calved	12,330	24,431	2,766	7,647
(4) For work	1,399	230	937	320
(5) Others	2,480	1,776	799	252
Young Stock :—				
(1) Under 1 year :—				
(Males)	30,141	35.905	7,359	9,248
(Females)	29,597	36,303	8,541	10,936
(2) 1 to 3 years :—				
(Males)	54,900	38,638	11,699	6,950
(Females)	50,729	40,142	13,431	9,520
Total ..	6,68,938	6,80,772	1,39,486	1,33,779

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
LIVE-STOCK.

The total bovine population of the district in 1956 was 8,15,551. Besides, the census enumerated 1,414 sheep, 70,939 goats, 125 horses and ponies, 1,377 pigs, etc. Though all these animals do not necessarily work on farm, they are useful to the farmer in a number of ways and are, therefore, included in agricultural live-stock.

Owing to changes consequent upon the reconstitution of Ratnagiri district in 1949, it is not possible to assess correctly the underlying trends and changes in the composition of live-stock population. In the table above are also set out the figures of the bovine population returned at the 1951 census. The variation in the population recorded in the quinquennium ending 1956 is almost insignificant and when marginal errors are taken into account, one might concede that the cattle population, which constitutes the bulk of live-stock, has remained more or less stationary.

The proportion of bovine population varies from taluka to taluka. Their number is more in the western division and increases as one moves to hilly east. The following table gives talukawise distribution of important live-stock in Ratnagiri district in 1956 :—

TABLE No. 26.

DISTRIBUTION OF LIVE-STOCK IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT (TALUKAWISE) 1956.

Taluka	Bovines over 3 years: For work: Oxen	For work: He buffaloes	For breeding: Bulls	For breeding: Buffalo bulls	For other purposes: Oxen	For other purposes: He buffaloes	Milch Cattle: In milk: Cows	In milk: She buffaloes	Dry: Cows	Dry: She buffaloes	Others: Cows	Others: She buffaloes	Cow-Calves	Buffalo Calves	Total bovines	Young stock: Horses and Ponies	Sheep	Goats	Others*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Chiplun ..	10,579	1,303	8	1	189	18	2,357	682	4,343	673	547	182	7052	1,117	29,551	15	..	2,753	115
Dapoli ..	22,797	1,647	174	67	741	24	6,486	2,036	7,390	1,246	2,177	400	13,474	2,548	61,233	18	375	4,721	40
Devgad ..	27,268	3,172	411	1,022	552	54	8,571	2,779	8,862	2,241	2,809	946	18,814	3,943	81,244	11	33	3,774	12
Guhagar ..	27,049	[illegible],489	270	73	461	67	10,193	3,056	6,995	1,349	3,505	942	16,786	3,672	76,898	24	256	3,417	12
Kankavli ..	15,950	1,054	194	14	626	23	3,025	902	5,682	558	1,708	260	7,370	914	38,239	3	14	2,175	4
Khed ..	29,331	2,013	233	55	569	26	7,951	2,549	9,481	1,668	2,546	520	16,003	3,140	76,093	3	136	7,547	39
Kudal ..	21,209	1,909	155	13	249	58	4,526	1,063	4,084	765	1,395	336	8,996	1,564	47,257	..	..	5,521	..
Lanje ..	27,529	3,290	139	6[illegible]	570	128	4,378	2,851	5,646	1,287	1,687	444	9,111	2,042	58,688	20	76	5,719	23
Malvan ..	31,753	2,273	30	34	361	82	5,473	2,367	9,931	2,078	2,389	624	5,164	3,369	76,436	11	3	10,593	61
Mandangad ..	27,405	1,750	17	3	551	48	4,502	2,018	4,939	1,548	2,135	719	8,899	2,997	57,531	7	151	4,267	3
Rajapur ..	19,07[illegible]	2,066	378	59	186	107	4,028	2,106	3,106	1,003	1,708	503	6,526	2,160	43,050	2	1	4,411	12
Ratnagiri ..	[illegible]	3,409	[illegible]	[illegible]	158	75	10,735	2,369	3,367	1,485	1,454	847	7,478	2,682	56,300	4	11	5,420	2
Sangameshwar ..	13,448	2,022	77	209	408	93	3,340	2,414	2,753	1,415	967	427	5,342	2,506	41,021	4	1	3,558	..
Sawantwadi ..	18,469	5,896	190	21	282	35	4,539	2,653	4,249	1,445	1,634	695	8,134	2,702	51,008	3	250	6,475	..
Vengurla ..	10,454	1,104	[illegible]	18	173	83	1,574	1,773	976	700	526	299	2,019	1,289	20,996	..	127	588	..
Total ..	3,29,177	35,675	2,342	1,792	6,996	910	82,178	31,148	82,654	19,461	27,437	8,219	1,50,988	36,054	8,15,551	125	1,414	70,939	323

*excluding 1337 Pigs

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LIVE-STOCK.

Plough Cattle.

Bullocks constitute a sizable portion of total bovine population and, therefore, play an important part in agriculture. In the absence of good roads, they are the mainstay of rural transport. He-buffaloes are mainly used for agricultural operations in paddy fields. The total number of plough cattle reported in 1956 was 3,64,852 heads.

Milch Cattle.

Cows and buffaloes are kept mainly for breeding and milk production. Out of the total number of 2,51,097 milch cattle, 1,13,326 i.e. about 45 per cent., were reported to be in milk in 1956. Of the rest, only 550 were working on farms. Cows, however, appear to be more popular in the district and are reared by the farmers mainly for the male progeny for draught.

Breeds of cattle.

Generally speaking, quality cattle do not thrive in Ratnagiri district. There are no well-defined breeds. The country cows are of light type, small in size and have various shades of colours. As there are no local breeds of buffaloes the district imports the *pandharpuri* type.

Sheep, Goats, Horses, etc.

Sheep and goats are reared for wool, hair, skin and mutton. Goats constitute an important source of milk supply to the poor cultivators. Horses, mules and asses, though classed as agricultural live-stock, are not actually used for agricultural operations. They are mainly used as pack animals, for drawing conveyance and for transport work.

Poultry.

Poultry-keeping has now developed into an important cottage or subsidiary industry in rural areas. In 1956, largest poultry population in the old Bombay State was recorded in Ratnagiri district, which was about 11,66,074 out of which 11,65,196 were fowls (hens, cocks and chickens). Eggs, fowls and ducks are considered to be a valuable non-vegetarian food.

Sources of Supply

The district is a net importer of *Pandharpuri* buffaloes and of cattle like *Khillar*, *Dangi* and *Surti* which are brought every year before the rainy season mainly from the districts of Satara, Sangli, Kolhapur and Belgaum.

Products.

Milk occupies a dominant place among live-stock products, Ratnagiri and other towns being the ready markets. When milk cannot be easily transported for liquid consumption, it is converted

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
LIVE-STOCK.

into milk products like butter, ghee, *khowa*, etc. The average annual outturn and value* of live-stock products is given in the following table :—

TABLE No. 27.

LIVE-STOCK PRODUCTS IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1956.

Live-stock Products.	Quantity.	Value in Rs.
Milk ..	.. 27,870 (Tons) ..	.. 1,17,05,400
Eggs ..	.. 1,86,00,000 (Numbers) ..	.. 18,60,000
Manure .	.. 41,00,000 (Cart loads) ..	.. 82,00,000
Hides ..	.. 82,842 (Numbers) } ..	.. 12,00,000
Skins ..	.. 12,576 (Numbers) }	
Wool ..	.. Negligible ..	.. 1,600

The following were the prices of live-stock in 1956 :—

LIVE-STOCK. Prices.

TABLE No. 28.

PRICES OF LIVE-STOCK IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1956.

(In Rupees).

Breeding bull	300 to 500
Buffalo bull	100 to 110
She-buffalo	150 to 175
Cow	60 to 75
Bullock	100 to 125
Heifer	50 to 60

FODDER SUPPLY.

The main reason for the poor quality of cattle is the inadequate supply of fodder in respect of which the district is neither self-sufficient nor does it import it in sufficient quantities. No special efforts are made to grow nutritious fodder. Dry grass, paddy and millet straw constitute the major cattle feed. Green grass is available only in the rainy season. Costly cattle feed, e.g., groundnut-cake etc., are imported by rich cultivators from the adjoining districts.

Milch cattle (cows and buffaloes) keep good health due to better care taken by the owners. They are stalled for the time they are required for draft and are allowed to graze in the open fields for the remaining part of the year. Poultry is also well-maintained.

*Based on 1956 prices.

CHAPTER 5 — Agriculture and Irrigation. LIVE-STOCK.

There are neither live-stock farms nor *panjarpols* in the district. Veterinary aid is available from the veterinary dispensaries at Ratnagiri, Chiplun, Malvan, Kankavli, Rajapur, Deorukh, Khed, Mandangad, Deogad and Sawantwadi.

Breeding, Veterinary and Husbandry Facilities.

Cattle Improvement.

Poor feeding facilities and heavy rainfall conditions in the district have so far precluded any tangible work being done about cattle improvement. The local non-descript and half-starved animals continue to play their part in district economy but these die in large numbers, when exposed to heavy rains every year. It has, however, been felt that the *Dangi* breed may be introduced because of its reputation to withstand heavy rainfall and poor feeding conditions. The Gopuri Ashram, Kankavli is doing some work in this direction. From 1956-57 a Government cattle breeding centre with two *Dangi* bulls is working in Mandangad taluka.

Poultry Improvement Scheme of the Government provides for the supply of pure-bred cocks to *bonafide* cultivators at the concessional rates fixed by the Poultry Development Officer, Poona, for grading of rural poultry. The Government Poultry Farm at Kolhapur meets the demand of the district for birds and eggs. Other benefits that accrue from the scheme are (i) grant of subsidies, loans and (ii) availability of training and technical advice, etc.

IRRIGATION.

Agriculture in Ratnagiri district is dependent on rainfall. Till about 1950, irrigation facilities in the district were very unsatisfactory. Attempts were made subsequently to increase them by sinking new wells and repairing old ones, as also by repairing tanks in different talukas. This brought about an increase in the percentage of the net area sown under irrigation from 1·7 in 1947-48 to 3·8 in 1955-56. The following tables give the sources of irrigation and the net area irrigated by each of them in 1955-56.

TABLE No. 29.

Sources of Water Supply in each taluka of Ratnagiri District 1955-56.

	Canals.				No. of wells used for irrigation purposes only (Private).*			No. of Wells used for domestic purposes only.	No. of wells not in use.	Reservoir.	Tanks.			No. of oil engines.
	Government.		Private.								With ayacut 100 acres or more.	With ayacut less than 100 acres.	Total.	
	Number.	Mileage.	Number	Mileage.	Masonry	Non-Masonry.	Total.							
Dapoli ..	..	.	150	6	1,027	71	1,098	2,019	44	..	.	..	..	40
Mandangad ..	..	..	39	15	128	..	128	396	10	..	..	..	..	7
Khed ..	..	.	..	..	2	..	2	1,185	85	1	..	..	..	4
Chiplun ..	..	..	56	29	..	33	33	1,896	59	47	..	..	..	3
Guhagar ..	.	..	260	55	648	156	804	1,761	77	....	..	..	..	9
Sangameshwar ..	..	..	..	..	..	40	40	1,922	45	42	..	..	..	14
Ratnagiri .	..	..	..	..	1,186	2,021	3,207	4,502	597	..	..	31	31	..
Lanja ..	.	..	.	..	60	38	98	1,242	59	..	..	..	..	2
Rajapur ..	..	..	..	.	..	229	229	1,103	178	..	..	..	..	7
Devgad ..	..	..	101	151	636	1,801	2,487	2,740	290	..	..	1	1	..
Kankavli ..	..	..	..	..	59	486	545	2,454	149	..	..	..	..	..
Malvan ..	1	3	..	..	277	818	1 095	6,008	53	99	2	2	4	
Vengurla ..	..	..	..	..	671	1,112	1,783	2,600	21	..	..	53	53	6
Kudal ..	..	..	..	..	184	65	249	1,371	15	..	4	10	1	2
Sawantwadi ..	..	..	90	175	..	..	..	1,750	..	..	..	..	..	1
District Total ..	1	5	696	431	4,926	6,870	11,798	32,940	1,682	189	6	97	103	116

*There were no Government wells in Ratnagiri district.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

TABLE No. 30.

NET AREA IRRIGATED BY DIFFERENT SOURCES OF IRRIGATION IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1955-56.

(In acres)

Taluka.	Net Area Irrigated by						Percentage of net area irrigated to net area sown.	Area irrigated more than once in the same year.	Total gross area of crops irrigated.	Percentage of total gross irrigated area to total area sown.
	Government Canals.	Private Canals.	Tanks.	Wells.	Other Sources.	Total.				
Dapoli	..	1,146	..	840	..	1,986	2·00	....	1,986	2·00
Mandangad	..	144	..	32	..	176	8·00	....	176	8·00
Khed	..	..	..	15	..	15	0·02	....	15	0·02
Chiplun	..	59	..	18	5	82	0·08	....	82	0·08
Guhagar	..	271	..	395	951	1,617	5·00	3	1,620	5·00
Sangameshwar	..	..	..	647	840	1,487	2·90	....	1,487	2·90
Ratnagiri	..	..	..	975	563	1,538	2·00	....	1,538	2·00
Lanja	..	..	..	1	370	371	0·59	....	371	0·59
Rajapur	..	..	..	431	655	1,086	1·20	....	1,086	1·20
Deogad	..	951	..	873	360	2,184	6·30	....	2,184	6·30
Kankavli	..	..	..	441	..	441	1·00	....	441	1·00
Malvan	617	..	360	1,383	953	3,313	6·75	....	3,313	6·75
Vengurla	..	..	180	5,064	75	5,319	18·00	....	5,319	18·00
Kudal	..	..	861	2,175	325	3,361	6·20	....	3,361	6·20
Sawantwadi	..	9,115	..	..	427	9,542	16·31	....	9,542	16·31
District—Total	617	11,686	1,401	13,290	5,524	32,518	3·79	3	32,521	3·79

The tables reveal the following facts. Though irrigated area in Sawantwadi taluka is the largest, the percentage of net area irrigated to net area sown is more (18 per cent.) in Vengurla taluka as against 16·31 per cent. in Sawantwadi taluka, where the entire area is under canal (private) irrigation. There were 90 canals which had a total mileage of 175. In Vengurla, on the other hand, well irrigation predominated and there were 671 masonry and 1,112 non-masonry wells. The largest number of wells was, however, recorded in Ratnagiri *viz.*, 3,207 (1,186 masonry and 2,021 non-masonry) where, however, the irrigated area was low. On the whole, acreage under well-irrigation is the highest and constitutes a major source of irrigation in the rural areas of the district; it will continue to be so since construction of new wells and repairs to old ones offer the quickest means of increasing irrigation facilities. Keeping this in view, financial assistance and *tagai* loans were made available to needy farmers during the First Plan period. Before 1953-54, financial assistance (to the extent of Rs. 6 per acre) was being given for constructing *kacha bandharas*. Every year the cultivators constructed about 400 such *bandharas*.

Though rainfall in the district is abundant, the monsoon lasts only for four months i.e., from June to September, so that rivers and *nallas* which are almost overflowing during this period are practically dry during the remaining period and it becomes imperative to formulate schemes to conserve this rain water. But the peculiar geographical circumstances of this district hamper the implementation of any such scheme. Owing to the existence of small hills scattered all over, absence of any big river and non-availability of expansive landscape necessary for major irrigation works, no big irrigation projects are feasible. Stress, is therefore, laid on minor irrigation schemes like bunds, *bandharas*, tanks, *nallas*, etc. The following are details of completed works (as on 31st March 1958), received from the Public Works Department :

TABLE No. 31.

WORKS COMPLETED UNDER MINOR IRRIGATION SCHEMES IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT AS ON 31ST MARCH 1958.

Serial No.	Name of Work.	Name of Taluka.	Area in acres.	
			Irrigable.	Irrigated during 1957-58
1	2	3	4	5
	(a) *Bandhara* (masonry) works at—			
1	Madhura ..	.. Sawantwadi	200	180
2	Arwali ..	.. Vengurla ..	180	.
3	Lavel ..	.. Khed ..	60	..
4	Dhamapur ..	.. Malvan ..	120	..
5	Gudha[1] ..	.. Chiplun ..	..	..
6	Adoli[2] ..	.. Vengurla ..	20	..
7	Karanjagaon[2] ..	.. Dapoli ..	43	..
8	Tide[3] ..	.. Mandangad ..	100	..
9	Gave[3] ..	.. Dapoli ..	N. A.	..

[1]. Rice crop is taken on all the irrigation works.
[2]. Works completed under Local Development Works Programme.
[3]. Works completed under National Extension Service/Community Development Projects.

CHAPTER 5

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

TABLE No. 31—contd.

The following tables show the area irrigated under different crops in 1955-56 :—

Serial No.	Name of Work.	Name of Taluka.	Area in acres. Irrigable.	Irrigated during 1957-58.
1	2	3	4	5
	(b) Tanks at—			
1	Pendur	Malvan ..	277	277
2	Varad	Do. ..	267	267
3	Dhamapur	Do. ..	616	616
4	Pat	Kudal ..	219	219
	(c) Repairs to tanks at—			
1	Arwali	Vengurla ..	150	77
2	Matond	Do. ..	200	126
3	Parahwadi	Do. ..	70	19
4	Asolipal	Do. ..	125	..
5	Umramala	Kudal ..	75	15
6	Sarmabal	Do. ..	260	248
7	Terse Bambarde	Do. ..	62	..
8	Nerur	Do. ..	225	150
9	Pawashi	Do. ..	150	40
10	Bambavali	Do. ..	70	70
11	Bao	Do. .	150	125
12	Tulas	Vengurla ..	165	..
13	Talgaon	Malvan ..	55	..
14	Zarap	Kudal ..	40	..
15	Walwal	Do. ..	60	..
	(d) Improvements to tanks at—			
1	Sonwade	Kudal ..	75	11
2	Chendwan	Do. ..	105	37
3	Tulsali	Do. ..	35	35
4	Talgaon	Malvan ..	170	8

TABLE No. 32.

AREA OF FOOD CROPS IRRIGATED IN EACH TALUKA OF RATNAGIRI DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

Taluka.	Rice.	Ragi.	Gram.	Green Gram or Mug.	Tur (Arhar).	Black-Gram or Udid (Mash).	Horse-Gram.	Sugar-cane.	Miscellaneous.	Total Food Crops.
Dapoli	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29	..	29
Mandangad	.	.	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1
Khed	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Chiplun	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Guhagar	..	..	12	6	11	160	262	31	196	678
Sangameshwar	73	1,217	..	..	..	..	..	16	..	1,306
Ratnagiri	466	.	..	11	9	10	205	13	..	714
Lanje	290	16	..	..	..	..	..	1	14	321
Rajapur	488	244	..	..	..	..	..	17	..	749
Deogad	630	346	..	..	..	..	..	59	141	1,176
Kankavli	65	75	..	..	..	..	190	16	..	355
Malvan	1.469	104	..	..	..	.	470	145	522	2,710
Vengurla	706	..	..	..	..	..	..	19	21	746
Kudal	1,322	..	..	..	..	..	..	28	16	1,366
Sawantwadi	5,418	..	..	..	.	..	..	36	27	5,481
District Total	10,927	2,002	12	17	20	170	1,136	411	937	15,632

TABLE No. 33.

AREA OF NON-FOOD CROPS IRRIGATED IN EACH TALUKA OF RATNAGIRI DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

	Cocoanut.	Chillies.	Ginger.	Turmeric.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
Dapoli ..	552	..	..	..	1,405	1,957
Mandangad ..	21	..	..	..	154	175
Khed ..	4	..	..	..	11	15
Chiplun ..	35	47	..	..	..	82
Guhagar ..	324	15	..	..	440	779
Sangameshwar ..	16	41	6	..	118	181
Ratnagiri ..	661	163	..	..	..	824
Lanje ..	9	34	5	2	..	50
Rajapur ..	201	37	..	..	99	337
Deogad ..	..	162	..	..	846	1,008
Kankavli ..	11	45	..	..	30	86
Malvan ..	..	416	..	..	187	603
Vengurla ..	4,570	..	..	..	..	4,570
Kudal ..	1,593	402	..	..	..	1,995
Sawantwadi ..	3,553	477	..	..	31	4,061
District Total ..	11,550	1,839	11	2	3,321	16,723

More than two-thirds of this irrigated area was in Deogad, Malvan, Vengurla, Kudal and Sawantwadi talukas, Sawantwadi alone accounting for nearly 40 per cent of it. Of the irrigated area under food crops, paddy occupied nearly two-thirds of the area irrigated. The paddy grown under irrigation is known as *vaingan* paddy, as the cultural and manurial treatments given to it are different from those given to paddy cultivated with rain water during monsoon. Though the area under *vaingan* paddy is small (about 3·4 per cent.) in relation to the total area under the crop *viz.*, 3,14,909 acres, it is of some significance because it is grown in this State only in two districts viz. Ratnagiri and Kolaba and has attracted attention as a promising hot weather crop in places where irrigation facilities are available. Here again Sawantwadi taluka is in the forefront. Cocoanut gardening is carried on entirely with the help of irrigated water except in Ratnagiri, Deogad and Malvan talukas. Chillies are grown by means of artificial water supply almost all over the district. Sugarcane, though it occupies a negligible area, was also entirely irrigated.

SEED SUPPLY.

Grain seeds are preserved by cultivators themselves from their own stock. Exchange of seeds between them is also common. Vegetable seeds are imported mostly from Poona, Kolhapur and Bombay by local dealers or co-operative bodies like Taluka Development Boards. Though the acreage under paddy in this district is large, it is estimated that only 50 per cent of it is suited to the introduction of improved seed. Again, owing to difficulties of transport in certain parts, it is not always easy to ensure a regular supply of seeds.

Use of improved seeds can increase the average yield per acre by as much as 10 per cent. Government depots are located in all talukas whence only improved varieties of seeds as evolved by Government and found suitable for the district are usually sold at cost price. In 1947, the then Government of Bombay introduced a scheme for multiplication and distribution of improved seed, particularly of paddy and *nagli*. Under this scheme, improved varieties of paddy and *nagli* are grown at various research farms and then multiplied on the farms of selected cultivators. The improved seed thus multiplied is then distributed through recognized dealers, co-operative societies, etc.

Government is also trying to introduce a Seed Certification Scheme with the help of co-operative societies and cultivators. It contemplates giving nucleus seeds of improved strain from the Government Farm to a cultivator who should grow the crop with utmost care to avoid mixtures. The produce will be inspected and certified by the Department for distribution. The neighbouring cultivators can then purchase improved seeds from such certified seed growers. The scheme however has not yet taken shape in the district. Following is the statement pertaining to the introduction of improved varieties of paddy and *nagli* seed in the district.

TABLE No. 34.

INTRODUCTION OF IMPROVED VARIETIES OF SEED IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Name.	1956-57.		1957-58.	
	Quantity distributed. (in B. maunds.)	Area served (in acres).	Quantity distributed (in B. maunds).	Area served (in acres).
Paddy Varieties—				
Patani-6 ..	137·00	548	9·00	36
Warangal-487 ..	19·00	76	48·20	196
Wakasal-287 ..	63·00	252	88·00	353
Panvel-61 ..	65·00	260	134·30	540
Bhadas-79 ..	1·00	4	10·00	40
E. K. 70 ..	....	....	12·00	50
Kolamba-184 ..	....	....	4.4	17
K-42 ..	....	....	10·00	40
Nagli Variety—				
Nagli ..	8·20	68·00	5·12	42

CHAPTER 5

Agriculture and Irrigation.

SEED SUPPLY.

There are three Departmental Farms in the district; one each at Shirgaon and Phonda for paddy and one at Hatkhamba for *nagli*. These farms pass on the nucleus seeds so produced to the extension staff for further multiplication. On an average, Shirgaon and Hatkhamba Farms annually give 100 to 150 maunds of paddy seed and 20 to 30 maunds of *nagli* seed respectively. Suitable strains from Phonda Farm are yet to be evolved.

Research Station Phondaghat.

Agricultural Research Station, Phondaghat, established on 25th August 1947, situated south-east of Ratnagiri proper, is doing a very useful work. The average rainfall here, is about 160 inches, average maximum and average minimum temperature being 82°F. and 75°F. respectively. The total area of the farm extends over 12 acres and odd under the Rice Research Scheme, and four acres under the Nucleus Seed Multiplication Scheme. The Research Station is to cover an area of 50,000 acres by the improved strains that it will evolve.

This Research Station has undertaken various important activities which may briefly be enumerated as under :—

(1) *Selection work.*—This is mainly concerned with the improvement of local varieties mainly coarse and mid-late types suitable for parboiling, individual plant selection and comparative trials of the selections and their yield, through different stages of development. Some promising selections are undergoing District trials on a small as well as large scale.

(2) *Hybridization work.*—This is primarily concerned with undertaking inter breeding or cross breeding of various varieties with a view to evolving improved and promising strains resulting in greater yield per acre.

(3) *Agronomic work.*—This comprises trials or experiments in respect of—

(*i*) Different manurial dozes combined with different spacings,

(*ii*) Different forms of Nitrogenous fertilizers,

(*iii*) Green manuring, and lastly,

(*iv*) Seedling vigour experiment.

The primary aim of all these is to improve both, the quality and quantity of yield.

(4) *Seed Multiplication.*—Waksal 207 and Panvel-61, the improved strains from the Ratnagiri Farm were multiplied till last year, the multiplied seed being given to the District Agricultural Officer, Ratnagiri, for further distribution to the cultivators. Seed multiplication has assumed a great deal of importance in the context of plans for agricultural development.

CHAPTER 5

Agriculture and Irrigation.

SEED SUPPLY.

(5) *Other trials and Miscellaneous.*—The rest of the activities may conveniently be grouped under this head, which are concerned with yield comparisons between various strains, trials of promising selections on the fields of cultivators and trials pertaining to the suitability of groundnut, niger, a medicinal plant (*Ranwalfia Supentina*) and cotton.

The Research Station has also a future programme of work based more or less on the above pattern. With passage of time, the scope and magnitude of activities are bound to enlarge.

MANURES.

For improving the fertility of the soil and consequently for increasing food production, manures and fertilisers have direct relevance. Inspite of the realization of this fact by the farmers, owing to scarcity of cow dung and other indigenous manures and prohibitive cost of chemical fertilisers, they have not been able to manure their crops sufficiently; even major crops like paddy and *nagli* have to go without adequate manuring which is so essential for obtaining maximum yield from the soil. Farm-yard manure and fish manure are the only fertilisers which could be used liberally, because of their low cost. Only a few progressive farmers in the district make applications of manure to paddy lands unsparingly at the rate of five cart loads of farm-yard manure (per acre), six to eight Bengali maunds of fish meal and 80 to 100 pounds of sulphate of ammonia. In the southern parts of the district where fish manure is easily and cheaply available, it is applied to *nagli*.

Compost Manure.

Because of the low fertility of the soil, large quantities of organic matter on the farm were being utilised for '*rab*' However, as a result of the propaganda carried on by the Department of Agriculture for the conversion of town and farm refuse into compost manure, cultivators have come to realise their folly in wasting away important manures in this way. Under the schemes introduced by the Department, pits of 10′×6′×3′ size are dug and closed after they are filled in with farm refuse, cow dung, stable litter, etc. and the contents are allowed to decompose. The manure gets ready in about eight months and contains, on an average, nitrogen varying between 0·5 to 0·7 per cent., which however could be raised to unity by taking necessary precautions conscientiously. The quantity of manure prepared annually in this way is about 40,000 tons. Till 1956-57, only two municipalities prepared compost manure from town refuse.

CHAPTER 5 — Agriculture and Irrigation. MANURES. Compost Manure.

The scheme of compost making was originally introduced in 1947-48 but was later on included in the First Five-Year Plan. The progress of the scheme for 1955-56, 1956-57 and 1957-58, is shown in the following table :

TABLE No. 35.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE COMPOST AND F. Y. M.* WORK CARRIED OUT IN THE YEARS 1955-56, 1956-57 AND 1957-58.

Serial No.	Year of the work.	No. of pits dug	No. of pits filled		No. of pits.		No. of villages in which work was carried out.	Area covered
			Old.	New.	Refilled.	Emptied.		
1	1955-56.							
	Compost	2,859	21,402	2,847	24,249	24,249	239	12,12[illegible]
	F. Y. M.	700	17,023	662	17,685	17,685	56	3,842
2	1956-57.							
	Compost.	2,855	23,967	2,560	26,527	26,527	504	13,264
	F. Y. M.	942	17,685	789	18,474	18,474	72	9,237
3	1957-58.							
	Compost.	1,653	26,271	1,581	27,852	27,852	370	12,936
	F. Y. M.	760	18,474	654	19,128	19,128	61	9,564

*F. Y. M.—Farm Yard Manure.

Manure Mixtures and other Fertilisers.

The manure mixtures were introduced in this district in 1947-48 and they were in great demand till 1949-50. The demand declined in the subsequent years owing to low cost and easy availability of fish manure within the district. A special mixture of groundnut oil-cake, ammonium sulphate and bone-meal (in the ratio of 8 1: 1), formulated by the Department was found very suitable by farmers for paddy cultivation. Among other fertilisers, considerable quantities of sulphate of ammonia are imported in the district by private firms and local dealers for being sold to the farmers as per the distribution scheme of the Government.

The following statement shows the progress of distribution of manure mixtures and sulphate of ammonia since 1951-52 :

Year.	Manure Mixtures.	Sulphate of Ammonia.
1951-52	793	6
1952-53	209	...
1953-54	361	72
1954-55	961	434
1955-56	463	253

PESTS.

There are various pests of crops. It is not always possible to estimate accurately the extent of damage done by these pests, as it depends upon the severity of infestation in any particular year. However, an attempt is made below to give a broad description of the pests and estimated damage done by them and to suggest remedial measures which can be adopted by the cultivators at the minimum cost, which include the use of insecticide, fungicide and rodenticides like gamaxene, gueserol, perenox, sulphur dust, zinc phosphides. These chemicals are available with local dealers and are also distributed by the Department of Agriculture at reasonable rates.

Of Cereals.

The main cereal crops of the district are paddy, *nagli* and *vari*. Following is the description of pests affecting them :—

Bhatache khodatil kid, the stem borer, (*schoenobius incertellus wlk.*) :—The caterpillar bores into the stem of the paddy plant and causes death of central shoots. If boring is done at a late stage in the growth of plant, the plant bears only empty earheads. Damage can be recognised by the appearance of whitish shoots, then called dead-hearts. Annually the estimated area affected by this pest in the district is 2,000 acres. Since the pest hibernates in the stubbles, they should be collected and destroyed after the harvest of the crop. In the early stages of attack, the affected shoots and the caterpillars should be picked out and destroyed. As the eggs are generally found on the tips of the leaves of young plants ready for being transplanted, the tips of the leaves should be cut off before transplanting.

Lashkari alya, the swarming caterpillars (*spodoptera mauritia B.*). are active mostly during night time. Annually about 500 acres under paddy are affected by this pest. In 1953-54, *kharif* paddy was seriously attacked by this pest. But owing to timely measures taken to combat it, a major portion of the crops could be saved. Another serious infestation experienced by the *rabi* crop in 1954, was mostly confined to Sawantwadi taluka. Crops over about 700 acres were damaged. However, owing to the efforts of the Department of Agriculture and co-operation on the part of the people, about 75 per cent of the crops were saved. Caterpillars are dark green with a slight yellow tinge. The pest can be controlled by (1) protecting the seed-beds by deep trenches, (2) collecting the egg masses by hand, (3) trapping the caterpillars under plants or small bunches of grass during day time, (4) ploughing the fields after harvest to expose the pupae, (5) flooding the affected patch and dislodging the caterpillars from the plants by means of a rope, (6) dusting in the evening five per cent Benzene Hexachloride (BHC) at the rate of 20 lbs. to 30 lbs. per acre, (7) spraying about 60 gallons to 100 gallons per acre of 50 per cent. BHC (water dispersible) at the rate of 5 lbs. in 100 gallons of water.

Suralyantil ali, the rice case worm, (*nymphula depunctalis G*). The caterpillars cut the paddy leaves into short lengths, construct tubular cases, remain inside such rolls and feed on the foliage. The

pest is controlled by (i) removal and destruction of tubular cases, (ii) rope dragging to dislodge the caterpillars after flooding the crops (a little quantity of crude oil is added to the fluid), (iii) dusting BHC at the rate of 15lbs. to 20 lbs. per acre, (iv) spraying one pound of pyrethrum in 60 gallons of water or seven to eight pounds of D. D. T. 50 per cent. (water dispersible) in 100 gallons of water.

Veet or nile bhungere, the blue beetle (*Leptispa Pygmoea*) is most active during July-September and hibernates in wild grasses during off season. All the stages of insect growth take place on the paddy plants itself. Annually about 5,000 acres are affected by this pest and the extent of the damage done varies between 10 per cent to 20 per cent of the affected area. The beetles are collected by hand and destroyed. They may be dislodged in water by dragging a thick rope across the flooded field. Dusting of five per cent BHC at the rate of 15 lbs. to 20 lbs. per acre may also be tried. Sometimes clipping of the tips of the seedlings before transplanting also proves useful.

Bhatavaril tol, the paddy grasshopper (*hierglyphus banian Fb.*) : Both the nymphs and adults eat the foliage and also feed on the developing earheads of paddy. If the pest occurs every year, fields are ploughed after the harvest. Dusting infested fields with five per cent BHC at the rate of 20 lbs to 30 lbs. per acre may also be tried.

Khekade, crabs (*paratelphusa Sp.*) are active during June-November. They cut the paddy plants at the ground lexel, feed on them and cause breaches in the field embankments by burrowing. Fumigation of the burrows with Cynogas 'A' dust may be tried. Poison baits composed of one pound 50 per cent. DDT (water dispersible), boiled rice (nine pounds) and jaggery (six ounces) are also effective in controlling this pest. Other important crops which are affected by pests are cocoanut and mango.

Of Cocoanut.

Rhinoceros beetle (*Oryetes rhinoceros*) is indeed a serious pest of cocoanut. Annually, it affectes nearly fifty per cent of the area under this crop, though the extent of damage done varies between 20 per cent and 30 per cent of the area of infestation. The beetle bores into the tender part, biting the fibrous portion. The tree may begin to wither and ultimately die. The pest is controlled by treating the breeding places every two months with manure dumps or compost pits with 0·2 per cent. BHC (water dispersible) spray. The adult beetles are extracted from the fruit and killed by using a beetle rod. The beetle holes and the inner leaf-axils are filled with sand and five per cent BHC dust in equal parts.

Tadmadavaril sondya, the red palm weevil (*rhychsphorus ferrungineus F.*) is another destructive beetle. The grubs pass their life on the palm and tunnel through the soft tissues of trees. The pest is controlled by injections of Pyrocone E, i.e., Pyrothrives Piperny1 Butoxide combinations of one per cent into affected parts.

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation.

PESTS. Of Mango.

Ambyavaril tudtude, jassid hoppers (*idiocerus atkinsoni* L., *idiocerus nivcosparsus* L., *idiocerus clypealis* L.) are a pest which cause damage to the flowers during flowering season. Nearly 50 per cent of the area is infested. The damage, however, varies between 20 per cent and 30 per cent. The nymphs and adults suck the sap of the tender leaves and flowers and thus reduce the bearing of fruit. They also secrete a sugary substance called honeydew permitting a sooty mould to develop. The pest is effectively controlled by the fortnightly application of five per cent. DDT sulphur dust.

Ambyavaril bhirud, the mango stem-borer (*batocera rubus L.*) : The grubs bore and tunnel through the stem exuding masses of refuse. The branches may collapse and the tree may wither. An injection of borer solution (carbon disulphide two parts, chloroform one part and creosote one part) is recommended to control the pest; the hole is closed with mud after the injection is given.

Others.

Tambdya mungya or *ombil*, the red ants (*Cecophylla smaragdina* F.) do not feed on plants. They spread all over the tree and build nests of leaves. Generally, they are found on fruit trees. Not only they are a nuisance but they also protect noxious insects like aphids etc., for getting honey-dew from them. Dusting with five per cent DDT and sulphur (1 : 1) or five per cent BHC and sulphur (2 : 1) has been found effective.

Rats.

Undir, the rat (*rathus rathus*) : In Ratnagiri district rats attack cocoanut trees and areca palms, besides being a nuisance in grain godowns and houses. Annually, about 20 per cent of the area under cocoanuts is reported to be affected by them. The percentage of damage in affected trees is nearly 30. In the fields, rats are destroyed by trapping and poison baiting (one part of zinc phosphide mixed with 16 parts of wheat flour)

Wild Animals.

Wild animals : There are no details available about the damage done by wild animals like pigs, jackals and monkeys. It is reported that annually about five per cent of the area under the standing crops of paddy, *nagli*, etc., is affected. The extent of damage is of the order of 10 per cent of the affected area. Encouragement is given by the Development Board for killing these animals and for protecting crops. Cash prizes are awarded, viz., Rs. 10 for a tiger, Rs. 5 for a wild hog and Re. 1 for a monkey. In 1953-54, the Board distributed Rs. 1,588 for killing wild hogs at the rate of Rs. 2 per hog. There were 77 *shikar sanghs* (Gun Clubs) in the district*.

DISEASES.

The following are the important plant diseases observed in Ratnagiri district

Of Cereals.

The important diseases which affect and cause extensive damage to paddy, *rala* and *nagli* in the district are *karpa*, *udbatti* (*Ephelis Oryzae*) *Kani* and *Kevda* (*Xanthomonas sp.*).

*Kalyankari Rajyachi Watchal—Ratnagiri District—1957.

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
DISEASES.

Karpa or the blast of rice (*Piricularia Oryzae*) is the most destructive of these. It is reported to have made its first appearance in an epidemic form in 1946 in the southern districts of the former Bombay State. Damage due to this disease has not been assessed, but it is estimated to be in the neighbourhood of 15 per cent to 20 per cent of the total crop production. As yet no permanent method of control has been devised; seed treatment and spraying with Bordeaux mixture in the proportion of 3 : 3 : 50 has been recommended as a temporary control measure. However, the work of evolving blast resistant varieties is in progress.

Kani or smut of *rala* (*sphecelothica sp.*) : The damage caused by *kani* is sometimes very heavy, ranging between 20 per cent and 30 per cent of the crop. The occurrence of this disease can be totally obviated by steeping the seed in two per cent copper sulphate solution, for 10 minutes. New-a-days, however, the seed with 200-300 mesh fine sulphur (four Ozs. of sulphur for 60 lbs. of seed) is more in vogue.

Kani and karpa of nagli: Of these two diseases, *kani* causes appreciable damage, which can be easily prevented by treating the seed with sulphur before sowing.

Of Pulses.

Mar, the wilt disease of gram (*Fusarium Oxysporium*) causes extensive damage and has not been amenable to any direct control measure so far. Plants dry up generally at the flowering stage or a little later. Resistant varieties like Nagpur 352 and Dohad are being evolved to meet the situation.

Of Vegetables.

Bhuri, the powdery mildew, (*Erysiphe Polygoni*) on cucurbit is universal. It can be controlled by dusting sulphur.

Kevda, the yellow vein mosaic of *bhendi* (Virus) : This is a virus disease and affects both *rabi* and *kharif* crops. It is a highly infectious disease transmitted by white flies and may cause damage to the extent of 40 per cent to 100 per cent of the total crop. Mosaic can be avoided by systematic rogueing and destruction of all affected plants. Virus can be checked by not sowing *bhendi* during the 'close period', i.e. April-May. Breeding disease resistant types of *bhendi* is the only reliable method of controlling this disease and some work in this direction is in progress.

Mar and *Tikka*, (*Verticillium dahliae*; *Cercospora sp.*) : These are common diseases on brinjal. *Tikka* can be controlled by spraying Bordeaux mixture in the proportion of 3 : 3 : 50. *Mar*, however, cannot be controlled by any direct control method except growing of resistant varieties.

Pane valne, leaf-curl of tomato (Virus) : It is a very serious virus disease transmitted by white flies. No control methods have been devised as yet.

DISEASES.

Of Areca-nut.

Koleroga of areca-nut is a very serious disease of areca-nut and is found to be prevalent in Guhagar, Dapoli, Chiplun, Sawantwadi and Vengurla talukas. It is caused by the fungus (*phytophthora arecae*). This disease attacks the ripening nuts in bunches and causes shedding. Dropping of immature nuts in large numbers takes place in the month of June. Later, the fallen nuts rot. The overall damage is estimated to vary between 15 per cent and 25 per cent of the crop. The following schedule is suggested by the Department of Agriculture for controlling the disease :—

(1) Removal and destruction of dead and dying tree tops.

(2) Application of Bordeaux mixture in the proportion of 5 : 5 : 50 to the bunches before the onset of the monsoon with particular emphasis on trees located in the vicinity of dead and dying trees of the previous season.

(3) The bunches should be tied with grass hoods previously soaked in Bordeaux mixture.

(4) Vigilance over the garden and immediate spraying of the bunches which may show dropping towards the end of August or September. The trees surrounding these foci of infection should also receive spraying.

Band disease of areca-nut is attributed to physiological causes and its occurrence is observed predominantly in Mandangad and Dapoli talukas. The estimated damage ranges between 35 per cent and 40 per cent of the total crop. No control measures have been devised as yet.

Mool-kujne or Anaberoga, the foot rot of areca-nut (*ganoderma lucidum*) : This disease, of late, is reported to occur in serious proportions. The affected plants die within one to two weeks after the onset of the disease ; recovery is almost impossible. Preventive measures such as cutting down the affected plants and burning down the remains form an important part of the schedule to control the disease.

Of Mango.

Bhuri, the powdery mildew of mango, (*oidium magniterde*) blossoms and results in poor setting of fruits. If young fruits are attacked they wither and drop down. *Bhuri* is usually accompanied by jassid hoppers, an insect pest, which jointly cause serious damage. However, both of them can be effectively controlled by dusting the blossoms with a mixture of 200 mesh-fine sulphur and five per cent D.D.T. dust in the proportion 1 : 1 or 1 : 2 depending upon the severity of jassid attack. First dusting is given when the blossom is complete ; second application is made after fifteen days. Usually two dustings are adequate but sometimes a third may be necessary. The approximate cost of dusting works out to Rs. 2 per tree.

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
DISEASES
Of Mango.

Bandgul, the *loranthus* of mango is a flowering parasite which attacks branches of mango trees by sending haustoria inside the tissues to derive nutrition. Affected branches do not thrive well and yield poorly. This parasite spreads from tree to tree through its seeds; the fruits which are red and have sweet sticky seeds are eaten by birds. If, by chance, these are deposited on mango branches, the seed germinates and a new plant of *loranthus* comes up. The only means of effective control is to cut down the parasite below the point of attachment with mango branch.

Of Cocoanut.

Shenda kujne, the bud rot disease of cocoanut, (*phytophthora*) often causes severe damage to the cocoanut cultivation in the district. The leaves drop off; the terminal bud rots and ultimately the plant is killed. The disease can be controlled as follows. If only outer sheaths are affected, these may be removed and the crown sprayed with one per cent Bordeaux mixture. If the disease has advanced much and there is no possibility of recovery, the entire crown may be cut down and burnt. As a prophylactic measure, the trees surrounding the diseased one should be sprayed with one per cent Bordeaux mixture. *Cheek vahane,* the stem bleeding disease of cocoanut is also very common, though the extent of damage depends upon the age of the palm and the conditions under which it is grown. Young plants can be killed by the disease though such cases are rare. The control measures recommended are as follows :—

The infected tissue should be chiselled out so that no diseased tissue is left. The cut surface should be painted with coal tar or Bordeaux paste.

Of Other Fruits.

Mar, Panama disease of banana, (*Fusarium oxysporum*) is a serious disease of banana and the *Son* variety is highly susceptible to it. The only way to combat this disease is to grow the wilt resistant *Basrai* variety.

Kevda, the chlorosis of banana, (Virus) is caused by a virus. Affected plants remain stunted and show somewhat bushy appearance. Severely diseased plants fail to yield fruit while in other cases the fruit is of poor quality. The disease is transmitted by a specie of aphids. The only successful way to combat this disease is to (i) burn all affected plants in the garden so as to prevent the disease from spreading; (ii) to prevent export of diseased suckers to other places and (iii) to plant disease-free suckers obtained from a healthy garden.

Khaira, the guava canker (*Pestalotia Fisidil*) affects fruits, which remain small and stunted and become unmarketable due to the appearance of cankers. Spraying with Bordeaux mixture 3 : 3 : 50 when fruits are young, affords some protection.

DISEASES Of Other Fruits.

Keoda, the mosaic of papaya (Virus) is caused by a virus. The papaya mosaic is transmitted by five different species of aphids. Due to its rapid spread and severity, papaya cultivation is threatened with extermination in the State. The only feasible method to control this disease is to observe a 'closed season,' by not growing papaya in a locality for a year in order to make the locality virus free; and to be successful, this has to be done on a community basis. Infected plants as and when they appear should be destroyed immediately.

Paya kujne, the foot-rot of papaya (*Pythium Aphanidermatium*) is serious only during the rainy season and affects such gardens as are liable to be water-logged or ill-drained. The disease is caused by a fungus parasite. Control measures take the form of preventive practices like prevention of water-logging and destruction of affected plants.

Khaira, the canker of *kagdi* lemon (*Xanthomonas citri*) is a bacterial disease of common occurrence in lemon. Generally, all the surface parts are affected by this disease which disfigures and, therefore reduces the market value of the fruit. Lemon canker cannot be controlled completely, although its severity can be minimized to some extent by the following treatment: (i) cut down and burn all affected stems, twigs and leaves, as far as possible in the month of May and (ii) give a thorough spraying of Bordeaux mixture 3 : 3 : 50.

CROP ROTATION.

The scope for crop rotation is meagre in this district. It is found convenient to allot separate fields for crops like paddy, millets and pulses according to crop requirements, and as these do not vary significantly, this allotment is more or less of a permanent nature. Further, low moisture retentivity of the soil and poor irrigation facilities do not permit growing of a variety of crops in *rabi* and hot weather season and, therefore, (for example) paddy is grown repeatedly in all the paddy fields. Even in places where water is available in winter, *vaingan* crop of paddy is taken immediately after *kharif* paddy.

In low lying fields, in *rabi* season, *wal*, *pawata* or *kulith* are taken after the harvest of paddy. Vegetables are also taken in paddy fields in *rabi* season near about towns after paddy harvest.

In *varkas* lands, rotation has got to be followed as soil gets gradually washed off. Even here lands have to be kept fallow in *rabi* season. These rotations are given below. The land is then left fallow for three to five years to allow for soil accumulation.

	Kharif.	*Rabi.*
First Year	.. *Nagli*	.. Fallow.
Second Year	.. *Vari* or *Nagli* or both	.. Fallow.
Third Year	.. Kodra (*Harik*) or sava or sesamum or niger.	Fallow.

CHAPTER 8.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

TENANCY.

Prior to the enactment of the Bombay Tenancy Act of 1939, the relations between landlords and tenants in the district were governed by the provisions contained in section 83 of the Bombay Land Revenue Code of 1879, Mamlatdar's Court Act, 1906 and the Khoti Settlement Act, 1880. The provisions of these Acts did not ensure the tenant equality of status with the superior holder in matters of contract or agreement. Many tenants, other than the permanent tenants in Khoti villages, who held the same lands for generations, had no right of permanency but continued to be tenants-at-will, liable to be deprived of their tenancy at the will of their landlords. In the absence of any legislation for the protection of tenants, rack renting was a familiar mode of exploitation of tenants by the landlords. Tenants were, therefore, left with little incentive to improve the land and obtain better yield from it.

The Bombay Tenancy Act, 1939, which was enforced in this district from 11th April, 1946, was enacted with a view to ameliorate the condition of the tenants without injuring the legitimate interests of landlords excluding, of course, the Khoti villages to which section 2 and sections 14 to 31 were applied; sections 3 to 13 embodying provisions relating to 'protected tenants' however, were applied from 5th October, 1946. Those tenants who had held land for a period of not less than six years immediately preceding the first day of January, 1938, were declared 'protected tenants'. Such tenants could not be evicted unless they ceased to cultivate the land personally or the landlord himself wanted to cultivate the land personally. It provided for the fixing of reasonable rent. Fresh leases were required to be of ten years' duration.

The Bombay Tenancy Act, 1939, was amended in 1946, in the light of the experience gained by its working. The Act itself was, however, replaced by the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948. The Act of 1948, while retaining the general provisions of the earlier legislation contained new features. This Act has statutorily fixed the maximum rates of rent at one-third and one-fourth of the total produce in the case of non-irrigated lands and irrigated lands respectively. It gives powers to the Government to fix rent at a rate lower than the maximum. The right of a landlord to terminate the tenancy of a protected tenant for the purpose of taking over the land for his personal cultivation is limited by the Act; he cannot terminate the tenancy if he is already cultivating other land, measuring fifty acres or more; and, if he is cultivating less than fifty acres, the right is limited to such area as will be sufficient to make up the area for his personal cultivation to the extent of fifty acres. The protected tenant is also given a valuable right; he can purchase his holding from the landlord at a reasonable price, provided that thereby his own holding is not reduced to less than fifty acres. The onus of continuing a protected tenancy to the heirs of a deceased protected tenant is shifted on to the landlord. Other important provisions of

the Act are the ones which enable Government to assume management of the estate of a landlord for the purpose of improving the economic and social conditions of peasants or for ensuring the full and efficient use of land for agriculture. A provision is made for the payment, to the lawful holders, of the net surplus in respect of estates taken over for management after deductions of the appropriate cost incurred by Government and the amount, if any, required for the liquidation of debts and liabilities. The Act prohibits transfer of agricultural lands to non-agriculturists, but the Collector may permit such transfers in exceptional cases. The landlord has to transfer his agricultural lands to persons in the following priority as laid down in the rules relating to Act :—(i) the tenant in actual possession of land, (ii) the person or persons personally cultivating any land adjacent to the land to be sold, (iii) a co-operative farming society, (iv) any other agriculturist and (v) any other person who has obtained from the Collector a certificate that he intends to take to the profession.

TABLE No. 36.

WORKING OF TENANCY ACT IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1951-52 TO 1955-56

Year		No. of cases filed	No. of cases disposed of	No. of cases pending	No. of cases decided in favour of the tenants.	No. of cases decided in favour of the landlords	The rest
1951-52	..	2,961	2,351	610	1,204	689	458
1952-53	..	2,520	2,162	358	1,149	583	430
1953-54	..	2,621	2.258	363	1,495	302	461
1954-55	..	7,783	6,139	1,644	4.447	1,251	141
1955-56	..	9,211	7,833	1,378	5,533	1,651	649

Prior to 1949, there existed in Ratnagiri district a congeries of inams, watans, and non-rayatwari tenures, whose creation was considered essential by all the previous rulers—Hindu, Muslim, Maratha and British for political and administrative reasons, viz.. as support to the existing rule and to ensure stable revenue for the State. Government, therefore, selected suitable persons and distributed inams among them in the form of entire villages, lands, annuities etc. They later came to be known as paragana watandars, inamdars, khots, jagirdars, etc. They were to remain loyal to the ruling power, maintain law and order and ensure timely payment of Government dues after recovering the same from the tillers. Thus was created a class of non-cultivating landlords who lived upon the revenues realized from their inams or watans. Even

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. TENURES. Short History.

the British retained these tenures and tenure holders to enlist their support for their rule, though they also knew that all was not well with this system. With the advent of Independence, the political necessity of continuing these intermediaries between the Government and the actual tillers of the soil ceased to exist. It was, on the other hand, realised that the existence and functioning of such intermediaries was detrimental to agricultural production and provided little incentive to the peasantry. As a result, Government of India laid down a policy for the abolition of all such intermediaries by enacting special legislation. In furtherance of this policy, the then Bombay State undertook special legislation for the abolition of these intermediaries.

Khoti Tenure.

The *khoti* tenure was by far the most important non-rayatwari tenure prevalent in the district. Before 1949, there were 952 *khoti* villages. The peculiar configuration and the problems of agriculture and administration (e.g. rugged nature of the tract and the difficulty of collecting land revenue) have been largely responsible for the creation of this tenure. These factors demanded that there should be a powerful and influential middleman who could settle in the village, organise cultivation, command confidence of the rayats and be responsible to the Government for revenue.. This situation gave rise to the emergence of *khots* who were accorded *sanads* in respect of the villages given to them for revenue management and were treated as hereditary farmers of revenue. The *khoti* lands were heritable and transferrable. The *khoti* tenure was governed by the Khoti Settlement Act, 1880, which was based on the recommendations of the Khoti Commission appointed in 1874. The evils of the system were felt long ago. In order to remove the intermediary *khots* from the village administration, the Bombay Khoti Abolition Act, 1949, was enacted and enforced with effect from 15th May, 1950. The Act has abolished the khoti tenure.

Kauli and Katuban Tenures.

The Kauli and Katuban tenures were next in importance. These existed in 273 villages of the former State of Sawantwadi. They were, in essence, leases either permanent or hereditary for land reclamation and improvement of waste lands, uncultivated and uncultivable, which were allowed to be held free from payment of assessment for some years after which the assessment was levied on a graduated scale. The important fact about these tenures was that they covered only scattered land and in no case an entire village. During the continuance of these tenures for more than a hundred years, the lands under the Kauli and Katuban tenures were developed and the propriety of continuing the reduced assessment disappeared. As a result, these tenures were resumed under the Bombay Kauli and Katuban Tenures Abolition Act, 1953, with effect from 15th August 1953, subjecting them to payment of full assessment. All the Kauldars and permanent holders have been made occupants without charging any occupancy price.

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

TENURES. Kauli and Katuban Tenures.

The paragana watandars called *deshpandes, deshmukhs* and *desais* were the chief instruments in collection of revenues of the State from the time of Muslim rulers. This arrangement was continued by the Marathas and the British. The paragana and kulkarni watans with all their incidents were abolished in the district with effect from 1st May 1951, under the Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act, 1950. Saranjams, Jagirs and other inams which were in the nature of grants for the support of troops or personal service, maintenance of official dignity or for other specific purposes, were resumed with effect from 1st August 1955, under the Bombay Saranjams, Jagirs and other Inams of Political nature, Resumption Rules, 1952. The holders of such grants had been empowered in the past to collect and appropriate the revenue and manage the villages and lands. The personal inams, on the other hand, were grants made or recognised by the British in appreciation of services rendered by persons to the Government and consisted of entire villages, lands, share from village revenue and cash allowances and the personal inams adjudicated by the Inam Commission as such. All personal inams were abolished on 1st August 1953, by the Bombay Personal Inams Abolition Act, 1952. An important feature of the Act is that the holders of inams have not only been subjected to payment of full amount but have also been made occupants of their lands. By the Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (Jagirs Abolition) Act, 1953, the Jagirs in Sawantwadi which were grants for maintenance, appreciation or remuneration for reasons of political expediency or exigencies of administration were abolished on 1st August 1954. In 1954, the then Government of Bombay framed the Bombay Service Inams (Useful to Community) (Gujarat and Konkan) Resumption Rules and resumed all such inams with effect from 1st December 1954 (except in Sangameshwar and Malvan talukas and Lanje mahal). These inams (usually given in the form of scattered lands and cash allowances) had been granted in the past to village artisans (called *bara balutedars*) who were largely responsible for the continuity and stability of village service from generation to generation. The village artisans began to show inclination for migrating to towns and with the increasing tempo of industrialisation the structure of village service useful to community came to be adversely affected. In spite of these abolition measures, several miscellaneous alienations consisting of scattered lands and of cash allowances survived (mainly in merged territories). They were all abolished by the Bombay Miscellaneous Alienations Abolition Act, 1955, which came into force on 1st August 1955.

Existing Tenures (1958).

The existing land tenures in Ratnagiri district are: (1) the survey (or Rayatwari) tenure; (2) Devasthan Inams; and (3) Service inams useful to Government. The survey tenure is one which consists of the occupancy of ordinary (*khalsa*) Government land and is the most prevalent form of tenure in the district. It is of two types viz., the 'old' or unrestricted and the 'new' or restricted tenure and the difference between them lies in the conditions upon which the land

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. TENURES. Existing Tenures.

is held by a person. In the case of 'old tenure', the right to alienate land by sale, mortgage or any other form of transfer is unrestricted. In the case of land held under 'new tenure' such right is restricted and alienation can be made only with the permission of the Collector. This restricted tenure came to be adopted in the year 1901 by the insertion of section 73-A in the Code in order to safeguard the tenants against themselves and their improvident readiness to alienate their land to non-agriculturists. Out of the total occupied area of 21,77,200 acres, 21,52,674 acres were under the 'old tenure' and 4,846 acres were under the 'new tenure' in 1958.

In the rayatwari, the land revenue is fixed not upon an estate or a village as a whole but on individual survey numbers or sub-divisions of those numbers. The land revenue assessments are fixed under the provisions of the Land Revenue Code as amended in 1939. Assessment is based not only on advantages arising from rainfall or the kind of crop sown but also on the basis of those arising from soil, water resources and location. It is on account of these factors that agricultural lands are divided into three main classes, namely, dry crop lands, rice lands and garden lands; and the classification value of soils of different grades of productivity is fixed in terms of annas. Land revenue settlements for a taluka are ordinarily made every 30 years. The lands used for agriculture are divided into groups on consideration of physical features and other factors mentioned in section 117-G, of the Land Revenue Code. The assessment is fixed on survey numbers and sub-divisions of survey numbers, on the basis of standard rates fixed for the group as a result of a settlement or revision settlement made in accordance with the rules laid down in the Land Revenue Code. In the case of an original settlement, the standard rate fixed for a group should not exceed 35 per cent of the average of the rental values of all occupied lands in the group for a period of five years preceding immediately the year in which the settlement is directed. In the case of a revision settlement, the existing aggregate assessment should not be increased by more than 25 per cent in the case of taluka or a group or by more than 50 per cent in the case of survey number or its sub-divisions. These limits can be relaxed in special cases, such as highly irrigated area. Government may declare, when a settlement is effected, that the assessment has been fixed with reference to specified prices of specified classes of agricultural produce. When such a declaration has been made, the State Government may reduce or enhance the assessment in the area concerned by granting a rebate or by placing a surcharge on the assessment by reference to the alteration of prices of the classes of agricultural produce specified in the declaration.

The assessment fixed under the settlement is not collected in full in all years. In years of distress, suspension of half or full land revenue is given on the basis of the condition of crops. The annual land revenue is then determined on the basis of the *annewari* system, which means an estimate of yield of crops in a particular year relative

to the standard normal yield which is equated to sixteen annas. The land revenue thus suspended in one year becomes due for recovery in the next or subsequent years if the crops are satisfactory. In case there is a succession of bad seasons, suspensions more than three years old are turned into remissions.

Devasthan Inams.

Devasthan Inams.—These are lands granted to religious bodies for maintenance of temples, mosques or similar institutions. The grant is made in perpetuity and the fixed amount of land revenue is not liable to revision. Devasthan inams are ordinarily inalienable and also impartible. Rules of succession to them are governed by the terms of the grant and the customs and usages of the endowment. The holder for the time being manages the inam in the capacity of a trustee for the benefit of the endowment. In 1958, 19,494 acres were under this tenure.

Service Inams.

Service Inams.—These are holdings of lands or rights to receive cash payments or to levy customary fees or perquisites for the performance of certain services to Government or the community. The holders of such inams are divided into two classes, firstly; district officers like the *desais, deshmukhs* or *deshpandes* who were instrumental for the collection of revenue under the Peshwas and secondly; village officers useful to the Government like the patil or the *kulkarni* who were provided with adequate remuneration in the shape of land or cash, and village servants useful to the community such as the *hajams, kumbhars, lohars, sutars, mochis* and other village artisans In Ratnagiri, such inams existed only in Sangameshwar and Malvan talukas and Lanje mahal. The acreage recorded under this tenure was 186.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955.

Since 1949 many amendments were made to the Act. The most important of them, however, was the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955 passed with a view to (i) vesting occupancy rights in lands in the tiller of the soil. (ii) redistributing land by the imposition of ceilings on individual holdings and (iii) providing the facility to the small holders to acquire lands where possible upto the size of an economic holding.

The most important feature of this Act is that it deals with tenants' right to purchase the land they cultivate. It lays down that, on April 1, 1957, called the "Tillers' Day", all the tenants who cultivated personally and against whom the landlords had not initiated proceedings by December 31, 1956, to resume land for personal cultivation, would be deemed to have purchased the land cultivated by them from the landlords upto the ceiling area, at a price to be fixed by the Agricultural Lands Tribunal set up for the purpose. In computing the ceiling area, the land owned by the tenant is also to be taken into account. The purchase price would be fixed at six times the rent in the case of permanent tenants, and between twenty and two hundred times the

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
TENURES.
The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955.

assessment in respect of other tenants. In the case of tenants other than permanent tenants, the value of improvements effected by the landlord is to be added to the price of land. The price is to be ordinarily paid by the permanent tenant in lump sum within a year from the date of purchase, others may pay the purchase price either in lump sum or in annual instalments not exceeding 12 which carry interest at the rate of four and a half per cent a year. In the case of a new tenancy created in future i.e., after the "Tillers Day", the tenant must purchase the land cultivated by him within a year from the commencement of the tenancy.

In case a tenant does not intend to purchase land or fails to exercise the right to purchase the land within the specified period, the Collector has been empowered to terminate the tenancy and to evict the tenant. Even though the land cultivated by the evicted tenant would revert to the landlord, he is entitled to retain only that portion of land as will be sufficient to raise the holding in his possession up to the ceiling. The land in excess of the ceiling area would be disposed of to other persons with due regard to the order of priority stipulated in the Act.

The rents are made payable in cash at a rate applicable to a village or a group of villages and fixed by the Mamlatdar, having regard to the maximum and minimum limits laid down under the Act. These maximum and minimum limits in the case of areas which are surveyed and settled or in which assessment has been fixed, are prescribed at five times the assessment or Rs. 20 per acre, whichever is less, and at twice the assessment, respectively. The liability of paying land revenue, local fund cess and irrigation cess in respect of the land is transferred to the tenant. But if in any year, the aggregate of rent, land revenue and local fund cess exceeds the cash value of 1/6th of the produce for that year, the tenant is entitled to deduct this excess from the rent payable for that year.

In Ratnagiri district on 15th March 1959, there were 1,58,734 protected tenants, 75,693 ordinary tenants and 1,91,843 owner cultivators. It may be noted, however, that as a result of the extension of the special rights conferred on protected tenants to all tenants in general, the distinction between the protected and the ordinary tenant has disappeared. A landlord who intends to assume land for personal cultivation can eject a protected or ordinary tenant subject to certain conditions, provided a notice was served on the tenant for resumption on or before December 31, 1956. In all cases of evictions, however. the tenant who is affected should be left with an area which is equal to or more than half the area leased to him previously.

The Act defines an economic holding as (i) 16 acres of *jirayat* land or (ii) eight acres of seasonally irrigated land or paddy land or rice land; or (iii) four acres of perennially irrigated land. The

TENURES.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955.

ceiling limit on individual holdings is stipulated at three times the economic holding. The ceiling area and the economic holding respectively are 84 acres and 28 acres of dry crop lands in Mandangad, Khed and Dapoli talukas and Lanje mahal which have been declared as backward areas. Restrictions have been laid down regarding the future transfers of agricultural land. Land purchased by tenants under the provisions of this Act can only be transferred with the permission of the Collector. Land cannot be transferred, sold or mortgaged to a person who is not an agriculturist. Further, when a landlord intends to sell any land he has to apply to the Agricultural Lands Tribunal for determination of reasonable price, after which the land has to be offered for sale according to the order of priority stipulated in the Act.

Co-operative societies have been exempted from some of the provisions regulating the relationship between landlord and tenant, as also from those relating to restrictions on transfer of land.

RURAL WAGES.

In Ratnagiri district, cultivating labourers as a whole constitute a very small proportion of the total agricultural population, due to the existence of a very high proportion of tenant cultivators who are responsible for a low average of land holding for the district. An average cultivator, therefore, tries to manage his land without the help of hired labour. Shortage of labour, however, is felt when transplanting commences in the busy season and labourers have to be hired. They are generally recruited from the village itself or from nearby villages. The following paragraphs analyse the differences in wages paid to these labourers for different types of work in the years 1938-39, 1948-49 and 1957-58.

Casual Labour.

Casual labour is employed as and when farm work arises. Generally men are employed for heavy work and women and children for lighter work. Casual labour is usually recruited on a daily wage basis. Payment of cash wages is in vouge in Sangameshwar, Rajapur, Mandangad, Khed, Guhagar, Deogad, and Chiplun talukas. In addition, tobacco for smoking is supplied in some talukas. Tea and meals are seldom provided. Wages in these talukas, however, were not uniform. In the case of male labour, the wage rate varied between annas six and annas eight in the pre-war period. In the post-war year 1948-49, this variation was more pronounced, the wages varying between annas twelve and one and a half rupees, the latter being more prevalent in several talukas, the highest reported being Rs. 2-8-0 in Guhagar taluka. The rate in 1957 varied between Re. 1 and Rs. 2, Rs. 1-8-0 being more common. Female labour was paid less than male labour. The pre-war rate varied between annas four and annas six; post-war rate varied between annas ten and a rupee except in Guhagar where females were paid as high as Rs. 1-8-0 In recent years the rate has, however been higher viz., Rs. 1-8-0 in Deogad taluka and Rs. 1-4-0 in Mandangad taluka. In the remaining talukas, it has varied between annas twelve and a rupee. Child labour is paid at

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
RURAL WAGES.
Casual Labour.

still lower rates which varied between annas three and annas five in 1938-39, annas five and annas ten in 1948-49. It was reported to be Re. 1 in Rajapur and Guhagar. Though the rate in recent years has varied from taluka to taluka, it does not show a significant departure from the rate prevalent in 1948-49. No child labour was reported from Mandangad.

In Lanje and Dapoli, the usual practice was to pay wages partly in cash and partly in kind; a meal at times was also served which formed part of a contract. In Kankavli, Kudal, Malvan, Vengurla, Sawantwadi and Ratnagiri talukas wages are paid in cash or in kind. In addition, the employees usually receive tea, food, tobacco for smoking, etc., though this is seldom a condition of employment. Cash wages for males in 1938-39, 1948-49 and in 1957, in most of these talukas were uniformly annas 12, Rs. 1-8-0 and Rs. 1-8-0 respectively. Wages in kind were paid usually at the rate of two and a half to three *payalees**, two *payalees* and one and a half *payalees* of food-grains (such as paddy, *nagli, harik,* etc.) respectively. Women were paid at annas eight, Re. 1 and Re. 1 respectively. The quantity of grain given in lieu of cash, however, varied from taluka to taluka. In the pre-war year it was about two *payalees*, in the immediate post-war years one and a quarter *payalees* and only one *payalee* in 1957. Cash wages for child labour were annas six (annas eight in Malvan only) in 1938-39, the corresponding wage in kind, however, varied from one and a half to two *payalees*. Cash wages in 1948-49 were paid at annas 12 while the wages in kind varied between one and one and three quarters of a *payalee*. The rate (both in cash and in kind) in 1957 was more or less the same as that for females. It may be said broadly that though cash wages have gone up in recent years, considerably in some instances, real wages (wages in kind) have not shown a commensurate increase. This is quite understandable in view of the high prices of grain prevailing in recent years.

Wages according to operations.†

Labourers are sometimes employed to do specific agricultural operations, e.g., operating implements, harvesting, etc. In most of the talukas cash wages are given. In addition, tobacco for smoking is given in some places. In Kankavli, Kudal, Malvan, Vengurla, Sawantwadi and Khed talukas male and female labour was paid, in 1938-39, annas 12 and annas eight respectively for harvesting cereal crops and threshing out grains. These rates rose to Rs. 1-8-0 and Re. 1 in the post-war years and have remained more or less constant since then. Guhagar taluka is, however, an exception where respective rates were Rs. 2-8-0 and Rs. 1-8-0 in 1948-49 and Rs. 2 and Re. 1 in 1957. Wages for operating implements (e.g. ploughing, sowing, etc.) ranged between Rs. 2 and Rs. 3 in 1938-39 and rose to Rs. 5 in 1948-49 and have since then remained almost at that level. Labourers

* A *payalee* is equivalent to about six pounds of grain.

† Information for Dapoli taluka was not available.

in these talukas have to make their own arrangements for bullocks and implements. In the remaining talukas the rates and practices were found to be varying. In Ratnagiri the system of payment according to operation is not in vogue; labourers engaged for this work are treated and paid almost like casual labourers. In Lanje and and Rajapur, workers are paid at comparatively lower rates as they are served usually with the afternoon meals. For threshing out grains, only meals are served along with *pan* (betel-leaves) and *supari* (betel-nut) at Lanje. In sangameshwar, Mandangad, Deogad and Chiplun talukas the following ranges of variation have been recorded for three different years.

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.

RURAL WAGES.

Wages according to operations.

Operation	1938–39	1948–49	1957
		Rs.	Rs.
1. Operating Implements.	As. 6 to Rs. 1-4-0	1-4-0 to 1-8-0	1-8-0 to 1-12-0
2. Harvesting ..	As. 6 to Re. 1	As. 14 to 1-8-0	1-2-0 to 1-8-0
3. Threshing .	As. 6 to As. 8.	1-4-0 to 1-8-0	1-8-0

Annual Servants.

Saldars.

Very few labourers are employed on yearly basis. In Khed taluka, this practice is almost conspicuous by its absence while little information in this respect was forthcoming from Guhagar taluka. In other places annual servants are usually employed by well-to-do farmers who have agricultural holdings large enough to provide continuous work throughout the year. Very often the annual servant is a skilled worker, available for work at any time; he even takes initiative in organising general farm work. The annual wage of a *saldar* is not the same in all the talukas. However, an increase of about four times has been recorded in recent years over the wages prevalent in 1938-39. Wages are usually paid partly in cash and partly in kind. In Rajapur taluka, however, a cash wage of Rs. 400 Rs. 450, with no other facilities is being paid since 1948-49. The alternative rate is Rs. 100 to Rs. 125 with meals, tea, clothing, shoes, bedding, *pan supari*, etc. In Sangameshwar the annual wage in recent years has been Rs. 100; in addition, the worker is paid daily Re. 1, being the cost of food, tea, smoking tobacco, etc.

In the southern talukas of Kankavli, Malvan, Kudal, Vengurla and Sawantwadi, however, the conditions of annual servants appear to have been almost uniform since 1938-39. They also appear to be much better off than their confreres in other talukas. A *saldar* received about Rs. 60 in 1938-39; since 1948-49, he has been receiving Rs. 150 to Rs. 200. In addition, he has always received facilities like tea, meals, *bidis*, a pair of dhoties (or *pyjama*) and jackets.

CHAPTER 5.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
RURAL WAGES.
Annual Servants.

bedding, etc. In the remaining talukas the annual cash wage has seldom exceeded Rs. 125 in recent years; other facilities provided are comparatively few. In several instances, only meals, smoking, tobacco and tea are provided; clothing is rarely supplied.

Balutedars.

The village artisans (*balutedars*) were once considered as the backbone of the village economy and in spite of its decay in recent times the *baluta* system has not altogether disappeared from the district. The necessity of these artisans is naturally felt more in villages which are far away from towns and where the means of communications are very difficult. Usually they are paid annually for the services rendered by them. The carpenter (*sutar*), the blacksmith (*lohar*), the cobbler (*chambhar*), and the barber (*nhavi*) are the conspicuous ones among them. The carpenter makes arrangement for the supply of a pair of bullocks (for farm work only), ploughs and a plank every year. The blacksmith supplies and repairs farm implements made of iron and steel. In Rajapur and Lanje talukas the carpenter himself does the job of a blacksmith. The cobbler supplies and repairs leather *mhots*, shoes, chappals, whips, etc. The job of a barber is shaving and hair-dressing.

The system of employing *balutedars* does not seem to find much favour with the local farmers. In Deogad, Rajapur, Sangameshwar, Dapoli, Ratnagiri, Guhagar and Khed talukas they engage these village artisans as and when work arises, and pay them usually in cash at daily rates. In Mandangad, this system was in vogue till about 1948-49, after which it seems to have gradually fallen in disuse. Payment used to be made in kind (usually paddy), which still forms the basis of employment in Lanje mahal and the southern talukas of Kankavli, Malvan, Kudal, Vengurla and Sawantwadi. In the latter four talukas the pre-war rate for the village carpenter was 16 seers of grain (24 seers in Malvan); since 1948-49, however, it has remained at as high as 32 seers. In the case of barber the rate per head has risen from eight seers to 16 seers (12 seers in Malvan). *Baluta* system is not observed in the last three talukas in so far as the village blacksmith and cobbler are concerned. In Kankavli, the rate is the highest and rose from 24 seers to 40 seers in recent years. The blacksmith supplied four sickles and four plough blades for 32 seers in 1938-39 and is doing so since 1948-49 for 40 seers. The carpenter's wage rose from 24 seers to 40 seers, and that of the barber from 12 seers to 16 seers. The cobbler

RURAL WAGES.

Balutedars.

received (in Lanje also) 16 seers during pre-war and post-war periods and 20 seers afterwards. In Chiplun, however, those artisans are usually paid in cash. Yearly payment to carpenter, blacksmith, cobbler and barber, was Rs. 18, Rs. 12, Rs. 18 and Rs. 12 in 1938-39 and Rs. 25, Rs. 20, Rs. 24 and Rs. 25 in 1948-49 respectively.

TABLE No. 37.

AGRICULTURAL WAGES (TALUKAWISE) IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT 1955-56.

Taluka.	Skilled labour.									Field labour.			Other Agricultural labour.			Herdsmen.		
	Carpenters.			Blacksmiths.			Cobblers.											
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Dapoli ..	3	0	0	2	0	0		..		2	0	0	2	0	0		..	
Mandangad ..	3	0	0		..			..		1	8	0		..			..	
Khed ..	2	8	0		..			..		1	8	0	1	0	0	0	8	0
Chiplun ..	3	12	0		..			..		2	0	0		..			..	
Guhagar ..	4	0	0		..			..		2	0	0	2	0	0		..	
Sangameshwar ..	2	8	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0		..	
Ratnagiri ..	3	8	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0		..	
Lanje ..	2	8	0		..			..		1	8	0	1	0	0		..	
Rajapur ..	3	0	0		..			..		1	8	0	1	8	0		..	
Deogad ..	4	0	0		..			..		1	8	0	1	8	0		..	
Kankavli ..	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	0
Malvan ..	3	0	0		..			..		2	0	0	2	0	0		..	
Vengurla ..	3	0	0	2	8	0	2	8	0	1	8	0	1	4	0	1	0	0
Kudal ..	2	8	0	2	8	0	1	8	0	2	8	0	1	8	0		..	
Sawantwadi ..	2	8	0	2	8	0	2	8	0	1	0	0	1	8	0		..	
District average.	3	1	0	2	10	0	2	9	0	1	11	0	1	9	0	1	8	0

Note.—The data relate to August 1955. Normal number of working hours was eight.

FAMINES.

Like floods, famines also appear to be comparatively less frequent in Ratnagiri district.

CHAPTER 5. — Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINES. 1790.

The oldest famine in respect of which information is available occurred in 1790 in the times of the Peshwas, causing agony to the entire district; Khed sub-division was the worst hit. In the southern sub-divisions of Dapoli, Chiplun and Ratnagiri it lasted for about ten months. In Rajapur there was scarcity of food for four months resulting in soaring prices of most of the necessary articles. Private food houses (*annachhatras*) were opened to relieve the distress and grain was daily distributed in them. In a few places, the Peshwa's officers opened public relief houses.

1802-03.

The famine of 1802 affected the entire district. In Dapoli, Chiplun and Ratnagiri talukas it lasted for about fourteen months. Khed sub-division once again suffered severely. In Rajapur there was scarcity of food for about three months. In Malvan taluka the distress was great and lasted for more than a year. Eight villages in the taluka were struck with particular severity, most of their residents dying of hunger and disease and a few survivers fleeing to Goa. Private food houses (*annachhatras*) were opend to relieve distress and grain was distributed daily. But these houses were too few and the gifts of grain too small to alleviate the distress. In a few places, particularly in Dapoli taluka, the officers of the Peshwas opened public relief houses. Revenue was remitted in southern parts. For three years, with a view to encourage those who had left the district to return to their homes, rents were considerably lowered and creditors were prevented from recovering debts.

1824.

In 1824 a very light rainfall was followed by a complete failure of crops in high grounds and a partial failure in low rice lands The loss due to scanty harvest was made good to some extent because of high prices of grain. However, as the general loss was considerable and as the preceding year was also unfavourable, large remissions of rent were granted.[1]

1876.

In 1876, insufficient rainfall, 81 inches as against an average of 104, caused much less of crops. Public health was at stake thereby causing considerable distress. The first fall of rain in the second week of June was followed by a break, long enough to do serious injury to the young plants. The later rains entirely failed and nearly the whole of *harik*, from one-half to three-fourths of *nagli* and *vari*, and a quarter of the rice crop were damaged. The failure told very seriously on the lower classes, the prices of whose staple food viz.. *nagli*, *harik*, and *vari* rose very high. To relieve the distress, repairs to the Vijaydurg, Vaghotan, and Phonda pass roads, besides those begun by the Local Fund Committee viz., four public works, constructing a road from Chiplun to Guhagar via Ibhrampur, improvements to the Phonda-Rajapur and Lanje road, and strengthening the dam on the Pendur lake were undertaken with the help

[1] Colonel Etheridge's Famine Report (1868), 118-121.

of Provincial Funds. Of the total of Rs. 77,360 spent on relief works, Rs. 34,950 were debited to Local Funds and Rs. 42,410 to Provincial Funds. Happily, an unusual demand for labour sprang up in and near Bombay, and it was estimated that double the usual number or at least 1,50,000 of the poorer workers moved to Bombay for part of the fair season and returned with saving enough to last them till the next harvest (1877-78). This, together with the bumper crop of *harik*—the staple food of the poor—had a favourable effect in ameliorating the condition of the people.

CHAPTER 5. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINES. 1876.

1896-97

The famine of 1896-97 was caused by irregular rainfall. Abundant rainfall was received till the middle of August. But beyond a few scattered showers there was practically no rain in September and October to bring *kharif* crops to maturity and to facilitate sowing of *rabi* crops. This resulted in very poor outturn and led to a general rise in prices of food grains.

1918-19

The next famine occured in 1918 as a result of insufficient rainfall. The main feature of this period was a very early opening of the monsoon followed by abrupt breaks in rains and their final closure much before the proper time. This coupled with the occurrence of influenza epidemic as that was, at once, the harvest time of the early crops and the sowing time of the late crops led to a general reduction in area under crops, failure of their growth and scanty outturn. Since then no scarcity or famine has been recorded so far (1958).

LOCUST PLAGUES.

The district has sometimes been afflicted by locusts. The specie generally found is *Orthacanthacris succinta Linn* which is probably indigenous to a great part of the Western Ghats and the Satpudas wherefrom when favourable circumstances arise for their development, the flying locusts sally forth to the adjoining tableland of the Deccan. They breed in this place if favourable conditions of rain occur. In the early stage of their growth, the young ones, may cause damage but the greater part of the damage is caused by the huge swarms of red flying adults during the cold and hot season, when they fly about or are blown about by the prevailing winds and devour *rabi* and garden crops. Mangoes and other fruit trees are the worst sufferers.

1865-79.

In 1865 some swarms had appeared in Sawantwadi but did no harm. In 1879, however, they destroyed crop worth about Rs. 6,000 in 18 villages close to the Sahyadris.

1882-83.

The first general raid of locusts of which details are available occurred in 1882-83. Government made a serious effort to stop depredation and employed officers of several departments for organising a campaign against them. Funds were sanctioned for the payment of rewards for the destruction of locusts and their eggs, rates of payment being different for eggs, adult locusts and hoppers

CHAPTER 5.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LOCUST PLAGUES.

1882-83

The *harik* and *nagli* crops were almost destroyed as those were the only crops unreaped. In 1883 the hill crops and upland crops were seriously damaged. Remissions to the extent of Rs. 660 were granted and Rs. 19,900 were spent on rewards.

1900-01.

In 1900-01 locusts caused damage to the crops in Konkan. Rewards were granted for the destruction of locusts and their eggs. In 1901-02, though two visitations of locusts were recorded, no damage was reported. In November 1903, locusts appeared in western parts of the district and marred the season considerably. They lingered till March 1904 and damaged crops and fruit-trees. Organised efforts were commenced to destroy them. After the rains broke out, the locusts laid eggs in enormous numbers along the whole range of the Sahyadris. Hoppers appeared towards the end of July. They were mainly confined to forest regions where cultivation was scanty. They lived in the grass lands and attacked only the coarse millets and rice cultivated by forest tribes who readily took part in measures undertaken for their destruction and received some compensation for the loss of their crops in the form of rewards granted by the Government for this work. These rewards, in some cases, took the form of daily wages, while in others they were based on the weight of locusts and/or eggs destroyed. By the end of October the hoppers began to assume wings and to invade crops, but the *kharif* harvest was shortly reaped and hence little damage was caused. Parasites were observed to be attacking the swarms in November and in December the locusts appeared to have migrated southwards to Sawantwadi when their number declined considerably. In March and April as in previous years, when they had issued forth and migrated northwards and eastwards, the swarms were comparatively very few in number and were smaller in size. Hoppers in the 1904-05 season were rare and confined to certain parts of the district. During September-November 1905-06 locusts appeared in three talukas and caused negligible damage to standing crops.

FLOODS.

Floods rarely occur in this district. Though floods have sometimes been recorded, they were mainly caused by excessive rains and rapid filling and overflowing of the mountain streams and, therefore, were short-lived.

In July 1909, eleven inches of rain-fall at Chiplun during eight hours raised the level of river-water four feet above the then highest flood level, submerging about half of the town. Many houses collapsed resulting in a total damage of Rs. 80,000. The extent of damage done to crops was also considerable.

1931.

On 13th July 1931 heavy rainfall of 13·55 inches caused floods in Rajapur taluka, destroying 147 houses and inflicting a loss of the order of Rs. 24,300. The assistance given by Government to the public by way of monetary help amounted to Rs. 20,000.

CHAPTER 5.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
—
FLOODS.
—
1938.

A flood occurred in Ratnagiri taluka in October 1938 and destroyed crops of an estimated value of Rs. 10,000. Help was extended in the form of remission of land revenue.

1958.

Heavy rains on 25th June 1958 were the cause of a flood which lasted for about 24 hours affecting an area of 6,809 acres and 3,665 people. Seven persons lost their lives. A District Flood Relief Committee was soon formed to raise a fund for the relief of the flood-striken. Cash doles worth Rs. 1,978 were distributed. Besides foodgrains, *tagavi* loans to the extent of Rs. 71,028 were granted to farmers whose crops had been damaged by the flood.

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH, EDUCATION ETC.

Agronomic research on different problems connected with agriculture is being conducted at research centres established in the district. It relates to plant breeding work, investigations on diseases and pests of crops. Production of mango, cashew-nut, betel-nut, jack fruit, cocoanut etc., some of which have considerable demand even in foreign markets, has attracted attention of the Government who have taken up the matter of their development.

Cocoanut Research.

It is with this object in view that the first cocoanut research centre in the State was established in July 1955 at Bhatye near Ratnagiri. The expenditure on this Centre is borne jointly by the State Government and the Indian Central Cocoanut Committee. It possesses 70 acres of land and carries on research regarding the types of soil, manures, climate, etc. for the growth and larger production of cocoanut. It also supplies seedlings of good varieties to the cultivators.

Horticultural Development.

There are two nurseries functioning in this district, viz., the Central Nursery at Shirgaon in Ratnagiri taluka and the Nursery at Nandgaon in Deogad taluka. These nurseries prepare grafts of various fruits like mango, cocoanut, chickoo, pine-apple, lemon, sweet lime, etc. by scientific methods and supply them to cultivators at moderate prices. From the Nandgaon Nursery alone, about 3,000 grafts of mango are annually distributed

Training in Agriculture.

As training in modern methods of agriculture is a prelude to a programme for overall improvement of agriculture, an agricultural school was started in 1949 at Shirgaon, two miles from Ratnagiri city. It provides facilities for training 20 students annually in a two-year course. Besides agriculture, which is the main subject taught at the school, the course includes subjects like village development, co-operation, public health, carpentry and smithy, weaving, bee-keeping, animal husbandry, poultry farming and civics. Students are given a stipend of Rs. 20 per month and get free hostel accommodation at the school. In 1956-57, 34 students were undergoing training at the school.

CHAPTER 6—INDUSTRIES, LARGE AND SMALL-SCALE.

INTRODUCTION.

RATNAGIRI HAD NEVER HELD AN IMPORTANT PLACE as a manufacturing district in the past. Even at the close of the last century artisans engaged in different industries like handloom weaving, metal works, pottery, horn works, cane works, etc., produced articles of coarse variety as required by local populace only. The district had never had a reputation of fine workmanship in any branch of industrial art. No trade or craft had any tradition attached to its first introduction. As a rule old and crude implements were used in producing different articles though here and there improved tools were substituted for old ones.

The establishment of foreign rule had no effect on the improvement of industrial technique nor on industrial development. The only factory working on motive power was a saw mill started in 1904. The First World War gave no impetus to industrial development. Prior to the Great Depression, even cashew-nut decortication which was a key industry of the district, was organised on cottage basis. A few factories, one generating electricity (Sawantwadi), two saw mills and other two, decorticating cashew-nuts were started during the period following the Great Depression and a few more like edible oil mills, fruit canning, chemical manufacturing were established as the result of the Second World War. The district remained industrially backward because of its peculiar geographical position. The following tables give the total number of persons engaged in different industries in 1911, 1921, 1931 and 1951.

(TABLE Nos. 1 and 2).

The tables reveal that fishing and pearling was the largest industry in the district, employing more than half of the persons dependent on industry during the two decades, viz., 1911-1931. This percentage has decreased in 1951, due to the fact that the total employment in all industries and services increased from 22,455 in 1931 to 1,11,989 in 1951, while employment in the fishing industry remained more or less constant. The number of persons engaged in cotton spinning, sizing and weaving has also fallen from 6,463 in 1911 to 2,458 in 1951. This reduction in employment was obvious because the district had never been suitable for cotton spinning and weaving. As the district has a large forest area the number of persons engaged in wood industry has increased from 5,129 in 1911 to 6,522 in 1931. The employment in metal industry remained more or less constant and in chemicals it has decreased from six per cent. in 1911 to two per cent. in 1931.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
INTRODUCTION.

TABLE No. 1.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN DIFFERENT INDUSTRIES IN 1911, 1921 AND 1931 IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Name of the Industry.	1911	1921	1931
Fishing and pearling	18,252	10,607	14,381
Salt, saltpetre and other saline substances	17	52	155
Cotton ginning, cleaning and pressing	20	5,349	845
Cotton spinning, sizing and weaving	6,463	4,340	2,581
Jute pressing, spinning and weaving	6	..	..
Rope, twine, string and other fibres	436	..	354
Wool carding, spinning and weaving	86	47	105
Silk spinning and weaving	24	68	70
Dyeing, bleaching, printing, preparation and sponging of textiles	8	46	5
Hides, skins and hard material from the animal kingdom	169	489	205
Sawyers, carpenters, turners and joiners, etc.	3,370	3,960	5,674
Basket makers and other industries of woody materials including leaves and thatchers and builders working with bamboo, reeds or similar materials	1,379	700	448
Blacksmiths, other workers in iron, makers of implements	541	502	486
Workers in brass, copper and bell metal	401	265	187
Manufactures of matches, fire works and other explosives.	26	11	13
Manufactures and refining of vegetable oils	..	1,242	843
Manufactures and refining of mineral oils	2,030	..	..
Manufactures of tobacco, opium and ganja	195	12	53
Boot, shoe, sandal and clog makers	2,070	1,582	1,671
Furniture industries	..	6	10
Building industries	643	730	911
Construction of means of transport	2	8	20
Production and transmission of physical force	2	37	1
Miscellaneous and undefined industries	..	2,790	2,951
Printers, engravers, book binders etc.	238	227	117

TABLE No. 2.

RATNAGIRI DISTRICT-NUMBER OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE *i.e.* SELF-SUPPORTING PERSONS ENGAGED IN INDUSTRIES UNDER "PROCESSING AND MANUFACTURE" AND "CONSTRUCTION AND UTILITIES" IN 1951.*

Classification of Industries.	Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent Workers.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
I. *Food-stuffs, Textiles, Leather and Products thereof*—	7,744	2,639	490	76	3,146	837	4 108	1,726
1. Food-Industries otherwise unclassified	471	561	42	7	213	264	216	293
2. Grains and pulses	378	22	57	2	250	3	71	17
3. Vegetable oil and dairy products	255	41	24	..	59	3	172	38
4. Sugar Industries	24	1	..	..	18	..	6	1
5. Beverages	168	17	19	4	59	8	90	5
6. Tobacco	847	534	23	23	349	80	475	431
7. Cotton Textiles	2,458	937	57	11	1,509	427	892	499
8. Wearing apparel (except footwear) and made-up textile goods.	1,400	95	134	9	165	10	1,101	76
9. Textile Industries otherwise unclassified	698	372	42	18	400	39	256	315
10. Leather, Leather products and footwear	1,045	56	92	2	124	3	829	51
II. *Metals, Chemicals and Products thereof*—	1,883	206	113	15	783	69	987	122
1. Manufacture of metal products otherwise unclassified	1,116	95	62	10	317	16	737	69
2. Transport Equipment	174	20	16	1	101	9	57	10
3. Electrical machinery, apparatus, appliances and supplies	27	4	3	..	9	..	15	4
4. Machinery (other than electrical machinery including Engineering work-shops).	230	15	13	1	182	11	35	3
5. Basic Industrial Chemicals, Fertilizer and Power Alcohol	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
6. Medical and Pharmaceutical preparations	4	..	..	..	1	..	3	..
7. Manufacture of Chemical products otherwise unclassified	248	41	15	1	138	20	95	20
8. Iron and Steel (Basic Manufacture)	19	15	..	2	13	9	6	4
9. Non-ferrous metals	64	16	4	..	21	4	39	12

* The census of 1951 shows 1,11,989 as the number of persons engaged in various industries and services in Ratnagiri district. Classification of the persons so engaged is shown in Economic Table B-III of the Census Report of 1951. The table given below indicates statistics of persons engaged in (i) "Processing and Manufacture" and (ii) "Construction and Utilities." Under the first head, the figures are classified into three divisions—(1) Food-stuffs, Textiles, Leather and Products thereof, (2) Metals, Chemicals and Products thereof, and (3) Processing and Manufacture not elsewhere specified. These are further sub-divided into various groups of industries and figures against them are given under three heads, viz., (i) employers, (ii) employees, and (iii) independent workers with "male" and "female" as sub-heads under each. The same arrangement of figures is being followed under the head "Construction and Utilities", which is divided into groups of industries like construction and maintenance of buildings, bridges, roads, telegraph and telephone lines, electric power and gas supply, domestic and industrial water supply, etc.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Classification of Industries.	Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
III. *Processing and Manufacture not elsewhere specified*— ..	8,373	794	474	55	1,207	88	6,692	651
1. Manufacturing Industries otherwise unclassified ..	1,639	73	165	7	161	9	1,313	57
2. Products of petroleum and coal	17	3	..	..	17	3	..	..
3. Bricks, tiles and other structual clay products .	20	7	1	..	2	..	17	7
4. Cement, cement pipes and other cement products ...	2	1	..	..	2	..	..	1
5. Non-metallic mineral products	561	67	9	3	55	3	497	61
6. Rubber products	9	1	..	..	5	1	4	..
7. Wood and wood products other than furniture and tinctures.	4,840	472	196	24	525	18	4,119	431
8. Furniture and tinctures manufacture	795	65	81	20	32	4	682	41
9. Paper and paper products	11	1	1	..	5	1	5	..
10. Printing and Allied Industries	479	103	21	1	403	49	55	53
IV. *Construction and Utilities*—	1,906	130	126	7	560	38	1,211	65
1. Construction and maintenance of works otherwise unclassified.	6	3	..	..	1	..	5	3
2. Construction and maintenance of buildings . ..	1,411	60	112	4	166	18	1,133	38
3. Construction and maintenance of bridges, roads and other transport works.	214	15	11	..	149	6	54	9
4. Construction and maintenance operations-irrigation and other agricultural works.	11	1	.	..	3	1	8	..
5. Construction and maintenance of telegraph and telephone lines.	2	..	..	..	2	..	..	..
6. Works and Services, electric power and gas supply ..	164	25	1	2	173	10	10	13
7. Works and Services, Domestic and Industrial water supply.	6	4	2	1	3	1	1	2
8. Sanitary Works and Services including scavengers ..	72	22	..	..	72	22	..	..

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

This chapter which is divided into three sections attempts to give an idea of industrial life and activity in the district. The first section deals with mechanised industries which are registered under the Factories Act*, and describes the volume of employment, capital investment, production, etc., in them. The second and the third give a general description of each village industry and of the trade union movement, respectively.

---

* Before the enactment of the Factories Act, 1948, factories employing 20 or more workers and carrying on manufacture with the aid of power were registered under section 2 (*i*), while factories declared as such by the provincial Government and employing 10 or more workers and carrying on manufacture with or without the aid of power were registered under section 5 (*i*) and (*ii*), of the Factories Act of 1934.

Under the new Act of 1948, factories employing 10 workers and carrying on manufacture with the aid of power are registered under section 2 (*m*) (*i*), and all factories employing 20 or more workers without the aid of power under section 2 (*m*) (*ii*). Wherever possible detailed statistics are given of factories registered under section 2 (*j*) of the Act of 1934 and section 2 (*m*) (*i*) of 1948.

1. *Sugar Industry*.—Gur Manufacture; other manufacture and refining of raw sugar, syrup and granulated or clarified sugar from sugarcane or from sugar beets.

2. *Tobacco*.—Manufacture of bidis; manufacture of tobacco products (other than bidis) such as cigarettes, cigars, cheroots and snuff. Stemming, redrying and other operations connected with preparing leaf tobacco for manufacturing are also included.

3. *Wearing apparel (except footwear and textile goods)*.—Tailors, milliners, dress makers and darners; manufactures of hosiery, embroiderers, makers of crepe, lace and fringes; fur dressers and dyers; hat-makers and makers of other articles of wear from textiles; manufacture of textiles for house furnishing; tent-makers; makers of other textile goods, including umbrellas.

4. *Textile Industries otherwise unclassified*.—Jute pressing, baling, spinning and weaving; hemp and flax spinning and weaving, manufacture of rayon; manufacture of rope, twine, string and other related goods from cocoanut, aloes, straw, linseed and hair; all other (including insufficiently described) textile industries, including artificial leather and cloth.

5. *Manufacture of metal products, otherwise unclassified*.—Blacksmiths and other workers in iron and makers of implements; workers in copper, brass and bell metal; workers in other metals; cutlers and surgical and veterinary instrument makers; workers in mints, dye sinkers, etc · makers of arms, guns, etc., including workers in ordnance factories.

6. *Manufacturing Industries otherwise unclassified*.—Manufacture of professional scientific and controlling instruments (but not including cutlery, surgical or veterinary instruments); photographic and optical goods; repair and manufacture of watches and clocks; workers in precious stones, precious metals and makers of jewellery and ornaments, manufacture of musical instruments and appliances; stationery articles other than paper and paper products, makers of plastic and celluloid articles other than rayon; sports goods-makers; toy-makers; other miscellaneous manufacturing industries, including bone, ivory, horn, shell, etc.

7. *Non-metallic mineral products*.—Potters and makers of earthen ware; makers of porcelain and crockery; glass bangles, glass beads, glass-necklace, etc., makers of other glass and crystal ware; makers of other miscellaneous non-metallic mineral products.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.

LARGE INDUSTRIES.

Electricity Generation.

Number Capital, Employment.

I—LARGE INDUSTRIES.

Electricity Generation.—With the exception of one power generating station at Sawantwadi, started by the ex-ruler of the Sawantwadi State, in 1933, there was no power generating station in the district till 1948. After 1947, four more power-houses were started one each at Chiplun, Malvan, Vengurla and Ratnagiri. Those at Chiplun and Malvan were put into commission in 1950-51: and those at Vengurla and Ratnagiri in November 1949-50. The total installed capacity of the five stations was 650 k.w. in 1954. The fixed capital invested in these five establishments was Rs. 19·37 lakhs and the total employment in them was 73 in 1954. The total wage bill in the same year was Rs. 77,724 and Rs. 30,408 were paid as salaries to those who were supervisors, technicians and clerks. In 1957-58, the total employment in the establishments excluding the one at Sawantwadi was 82.

Machinery.

The power in the Chiplun Power House generates electric energy with two diesel engine sets of 150 kw. installed capacity. One set comprised 80 B.H.P. engine coupled to alternator of 400/400 volts. The second set is of 160 B.H.P. engine coupled to alternator of 125 k.w. The power plants in this power house generate alternating current of power at 400 volts, 3 phases, 50 cycles, 0·8 power factor. The power station at Malvan comprised two sets of 100 k.w. and 50 k.w. The alternator in the power house is coupled to diesel engines. Power is generated at 440 volts, 50 cycles, 0·8 power factor. In the Vengurla power house, there are three diesel engine sets, one of 200 k.w., the other of 100 k.w., and the third of 50 k.w. All these engines are coupled to alternators generating power of 350 k.w. The power is generated at 400/440 volts, 3 phases, 50 cycles. The power plant at Chiplun power house generates alternating current at 400 volts, that at Malvan alternating current at 440 volts, 50 cycles, 0·8 power factor. The Ratnagiri power house which also generates alternating current was started with an installed capacity of 150 k.w. in 1949-50. It was stepped up to 11 k.w., for transmission of power to three sub-stations situated at Ratnagiri-Mirya Road, Gadital and Rajawada in Ratnagiri town. In 1955. due to increase in demand for power in Ratnagiri town, a third diesel engine set of 200 k.w. was installed in the power house.

Production.

These power houses supply power to the respective towns where they are located. They generated, 9,98,267 units of electricity in 1954-55. In 1957-58, four out of five houses generated about 90,000 units, per month. The number of consumers served at the end of March 1958 by the Chiplun power house was 683, by Vengurla 442, and by Ratnagiri 120.

Charges

Charges per unit levied by the power houses at Chiplun and Malvan in 1957-58, were as follows :—

Domestic lighting, fans—	..	50 N.P. per unit.
Commercial—small motors up to 1 H.P.	..	19 N.P. per unit.

Charges per unit levied by the Vengurla and Ratnagiri power houses were as under :—

Lighting, fans and small appliances.	53 N.P. per unit for the first 12 units.
Lighting, fans and small appliances.	50 N.P. per unit for the next 12 units.
Lighting, fans and small appliances.	44 N.P. per unit for all additional units.
Refrigerators, cookers, heaters and small motors up to 1 H.P.	19 N.P. per unit.

Cashew-nut Decorticating.

Cashew-nut decorticating.—Among the existing industries in the district, cashew-nut decorticating is one of the most important one, engaging about 1,700 workers. The district, particularly its southern part composed of Sawantwadi, Vengurla and Malvan talukas where *kaju* trees are grown in abundance, produces about 80,000 Bengali maunds of cashew-nuts annually. Malvan and Vengurla are the two important centres at which cashew nuts are decorticated on a large scale. The raw nuts mature by March. Formerly, local supply of cashew-nuts was insufficient and large supplies were imported from Africa and Portugal. Now local supply is sufficient to meet the requirements of decorticating factories.

Prior to 1929, the industry was organised as a cottage industry. The first factory was started at Malvan on a small scale and two other large factories were started at Vengurla in 1930. In 1954, there were four factories in the district out of which one was closed thereafter. In 1958, there were three factories registered under the Factories Act.

Capital and Employment.

The total capital invested in the four factories in 1954 was Rs. 8·15 lakhs, including Rs. 2·15 lakhs as fixed capital. The industry is seasonal affording seasonal employment only The season of decorticating cashew-nuts starts in July and closes in December. The total employment in these four factories in 1954 was 948 workers, of whom 891 were women. The two factories at Vengurla employed about 500 workers, out of whom 460 were women and 40 men in 1957-58. Male workers were employed in roasting, shelling and baking and female workers in shelling and grading. Women employed in shelling cashew-nuts were paid on piece-work system and earned about 13 annas per day and those employed in the grading were paid 8 to 12 annas per day. Men were paid Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2 per day in 1954. The wages were more or less the same in 1958. The number of persons other than workers employed in these factories was 20 and they were paid Rs. 23,520 as salaries in 1954.

Raw Materials.

In 1939-40, two factories, one at Malvan and the other at Vengurla purchased Rs. 7 lakhs worth of raw cashew-nuts for decortication, out of which nearly 2/3rd were imported from Africa. The price

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. LARGE INDUSTRIES. Cashew-nut. Decorticating. *Raw Materials.*

of African cashew-nuts varied then from Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 per ton. In 1954, four factories processed 4,475 tons of raw cashew-nuts valued at Rs. 24 lakhs. About half of the supply was available locally and the remaining half was imported from Africa. In 1958, the existing three factories did not import any raw cashew-nuts from Africa, but consumed locally produced cashew-nuts priced at Rs. 20 to Rs. 22 per Bengali maund. About 26,000 cases of cashew-nuts each containing 50 lbs. valued at Rs. 26·5 lakhs were marketed in 1954.

Process of Decorticating.

The process of removing shells from the nuts and packing of kernels into tins is carried out by hand. Raw cashew-nuts are first roasted in roasting drums which are rotated on fire by male workers by hand. Roasted nuts are then distributed among workers for decortication. About 120 maunds of raw cashew-nuts can be roasted in such drums in a day. In this process, cashew-nut oil in the shells is wasted and burnt. After decorticating, kernels are slightly baked to remove the skin and are graded according to size. The best quality is known as fine whole. One pound contains about 210 kernels of best quality. The factories adopt the technically described method of *drastic roasting* to obtain whole kernels. The following table shows the number of kernels according to quality and size contained in a pound :—

Pound.			Number.
1st quality	..	..	210
2nd quality	..	..	240
3rd quality	..	..	320
4th quality	..	..	400
5th quality	..	..	450
6th small pieces	..	..	..

One factory uses oil-bath process for roasting. Nuts are roasted on oil-bath plant and cashew-nut oil is separated simultaneously from shells during the process of roasting. Kernels are finally packed in tins in which partial vacuum is created by suction.

Market.

About 75 % of the total produce of the industry is exported to U.S.A. and Britain and the rest is distributed in Bombay and other places. The selling price of the products varied from Rs. 150 to Rs. 260 per cwt. in 1954, according to grades. The fluctuations in price depend upon the demand for the product in foreign markets.

With the utilisation of better methods of roasting which would avoid wastage of oil and with better organisation, the industry is sure to prosper in the district.

Saw Milling.

Saw Milling.—The total forest area of the district is 46,958 acres, of which a large part lies in Kudal and Sawantwadi talukas. The main forest product is wood of different kinds like teak, *sesame, khair, ain, kinjal, nana* and *jamba*. Hard wood of this forest is

largely demanded in Kolhapur and Belgaum districts. Soft wood is being used for manufacturing packing cases used for exporting tins of cashew-kernels, *cocum*, mangoes and *bidis*. The availability of wood and the aforementioned demand for packing cases for mangoes have encouraged the establishment and development of saw mills at Sawantwadi and Vengurla.

The first saw mill was started at Kolgaon, a village in Sawantwadi taluka, in 1904. Two others, one each at Kolgaon and Sawantwadi were established in 1932. Besides these there were 16 small establishments engaged in saw milling which did not come under the purview of the Factories Act, 1948. The employment in them was 49 in 1958. Almost all saw mills in the district were grinding grains and dehusking paddy along with saw milling, as they did not get sufficient wood for sawing. They worked for eight to nine months in a year.

Capital, Employment.

The capital invested in the three factories registered under the Factories Act, was Rs. 2,37,500, including working capital of Rs. 41,500, in 1954. Machinery installed in these mills was composed of circular saw and band saw machines, *chakkis*, hullers and oil engines. One saw mill had, in addition to the above machines, a lathe and a welding machine. Each mill on an average sawed about 40 cubic feet per day. Of the three mills, two establishments which were of a small size employed four and eight workers respectively. The other one employed 19 workers. These workers were paid about Rs. 11,000 as wages in 1954. Two persons employed as supervisors were paid Rs. 1,120 as salary during that year.

With a long coastal line and endowed with abundant supplies of wood this district seems to be favourably placed for starting country-craft building industry.

Chemicals.

Chemicals.—In 1954, there was one chemical factory situated at Math near Vengurla. It was established in 1945. The factory was manufacturing silicate of soda and laundry soap. It was accorded mining concessions by the former State of Sawantwadi to dig silica sand which is available in the areas adjacent to the factory.

Capital.

The total productive capital invested in the factory in 1950, 1951, 1952 and 1954 is shown in the table below :—

	1950	1951	1952	1954
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Fixed Capital	81,813	70,600	84,046	75,628
Working Capital	21,035	22,153	96,491	65,190
Total Capital .	1,02,848	92,753	1,80,537	1,40,827

Employment.

The factory employed 26 workers in 1950, 27 in 1951, 41 in 1952 and 37 in 1954. The total employment in the factory other than workers was two in 1950 and 1951 and six in 1952 and 1954. The

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. LARGE INDUSTRIES. *Employment.*

total wage bill of workers was Rs. 24,700 in 1950, Rs. 29,133 in 1951, Rs. 36,074 in 1952 and Rs. 23,912 in 1954. The salary bill of persons other than workers was Rs. 3,900 in 1950, Rs. 5,606 in 1951, Rs. 11,049 in 1952 and Rs. 13,045 in 1954.

Machinery.

The factory which had two generators of 5 K.W.H. each for generating electricity, consumed fuels and electricity worth Rs. 21,758 in 1950, Rs. 30,411 in 1951, Rs. 37,046 in 1952, and Rs. 32,661 in 1954.

Raw Materials.

The raw materials consumed by the factory were soda ash, silica, bleaching powder, caustic soda and vegetable oil. The consumption of these materials and value of materials consumed during 1950, 1951, 1952 and 1954, were as follows :—

	1950	1951	1952	1954
1. Quantity of minerals and metals consumed (Tons).	575	462	529	486
2. Value of minerals and metals (Rs.).	11,500	9,240	10,580	9,720
3 Quantity of bleaching powder consumed (cwt.)	40	27	9	19
4. Value of bleaching powder consumed (Rs.)	1,200	675	288	673
5. Quantity of soda ash consumed (cwt.)	9,200	....	8,460	7,100
6. Value of soda ash consumed (Rs.)	1,65,600	1,41,443	1,95,169	1,69,056
7. Quantity of unrefined vegetable oil consumed (cwt.)	N. A.	N. A.	922	687
8. Value of unrefined oil consumed (Rs.)	N. A.	N. A.	71,021	55,128

Production.

The factory produced sodium silicate and laundry soap. The production of these two articles in 1950-1952 and 1954 was as follows :—

	1950	1951	1952	1954
Quantity of sodium silicate produced (cwt.)	24,019	20,569	22,992	21,709
Value of sodium silicate produced (Rs.)	2,76,043	2,66,879	2,46,081	2,30,657
Quantity of laundry soap produced (cwt.)	....	.. .	3,684	2,485
Value of laundry soap produced (Rs.) ..	....	....	1,62,368	1,04,270

The factory worked to only half of its installed capacity. The products were exported to Bombay city and Mysore State. Of recently the factory produces soap only and has stopped the production of other goods.

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. LARGE INDUSTRIES Chemicals.

Market.

There were four other small factories producing chemicals and drugs employing about four persons in 1958. They did not come under the purview of the Factories Act.

Fruit Canning.

Fruit Canning.—The area under mango crop in the district was 8,156 acres in 1955-56. Alphonso mangoes in Ratnagiri and the surrounding areas are famous for their quality and taste and are much in demand even in western countries like U.K. and U.S.A. Availability of mangoes and cheap labour were the two factors responsible for the establishment of a fruit canning factory at Ratnagiri in 1948. It cans mango slices and pulp and works for about a month or two in the season. It had Rs. 24,500 as investment capital, of which Rs. 7,072 was working capital in 1954. About 90 workers were employed in it. They were paid Rs. 2 464 as wages in the season of 1954.

Machinery.

The factory had steam jacketed pan, pulping, exhausting and steaming machines and one high speed oil engine of 10 BHP.

Raw Materials and Production

During the 1954 season, 1,050 cwt. of mangoes worth Rs. 21,500, and 110 maunds of sugar valued at Rs. 3,740 were used by the factory in the canning process of mango slices and pulp. Packing tins of an estimated value of Rs. 15,000 were used for the export of these products. The factory produced 30 tons of mango slices in syrups and 1,650 cases of mango pulp, both together valued at Rs. 75,000. The manufactured products were sent to Bombay, U.K., Persian Gulf and Middle Eastern countries.

There is very good scope for the development of this industry due to abundant supply of quality mangoes in this district.

Besides this factory, there was a small factory of fruit canning employing three workers. It was not registered under the Factories Act.

Printing and Bookbinding.

Printing and Bookbinding.—There were 17 printing presses in the district. Out of these only one was registered under the Factories Act.

The number of persons employed in unregistered factories was 63 in 1958.

Capital.

The total productive capital invested in the establishment registered under Factories Act, was Rs. 36,000 of which Rs. 16,000 represented working capital. The machinery installed in it was a cylinder machine, stitching machine, two treadles, ruling machine, cutting machine, two electric motors of 75 and 50 horse power each.

CHAPTER 6.
—
LARGE INDUSTRIES.
Printing and Book binding.
Employment.

Twenty workers were employed in the establishment in 1954 and 18 in May 1958. The total wage bill of 20 workers in 1954 was Rs. 11,340. In 1958, a skilled worker was paid Rs. 50 per month. A compositor was employed on daily wages and was paid Rs. 2 per day. A printer working on a cylinder machine was paid Rs. 50 per month. An unskilled worker working on a treadle machine was paid Rs. 38 per month. The source of labour supply was nearby villages.

Raw Materials.

The printing press used paper of different qualities, printing ink, types, etc., as raw materials which were imported from Poona and Bombay. It consumed paper worth Rs. 15,000 and one cwt. of ink valued at Rs. 1,000 in 1954.

It printed a weekly and executed local orders. It did business worth Rs. 27,000 in 1954. Other presses also served local orders like printing of books and invitation cards. It was reported that there was not enough work for the presses to keep them fully employed.

Automobile Repairing.

Automobile Repairing.—There was one automobile repairing workshop at Ratnagiri. It was established in 1940 and was registered under the Factories Act, with a capital investment of about Rs. 1,50,000. The factory had a small workshop containing a drilling machine, a battery charger, a cutting machine, air compressor and a motor of 23¾ horse power. It consumed 430 K.W. of electric energy in 1954 and employed nine persons, including one supervisor. Their total wage bill was Rs. 7,200 in 1954, inclusive of Rs. 900 paid to the supervisor.

State Transport Workshop.

Besides this factory, there were four State Transport workshops, including one divisional workshop at Ratnagiri and three, one each at Ratnagiri, Chiplun and Sawantwadi engaged in repairing vehicles owned by the State Road Transport Corporation. The capital invested in these workshops was Rs. 4,62,272 in 1955-56. About 220 workers were employed in them. Besides these workers, 16 persons were employed as supervisors and clerks. The total wage bill of these workers in 1955-56 was Rs. 17,786. Supervisors and clerks were paid about Rs. 4,000 in the same year. These establishments consumed 44,864 units of electric energy, and raw materials worth Rs. 12,15,597 in 1955-56.

There were 13 other small motor repairing establishments employing 22 persons. They did not come under the purview of the Factories Act.

Edible Oil.

Edible Oil.—In 1954, there was one oil factory situated at Chiplun. It was established in 1895. The total productive capital invested in it was Rs. 1,50,000 including Rs. 50,000 as working capital. The factory employed eight workers who were paid Rs. 1,440 as wages annually. It worked for 90 days in 1954. One person was

Industries.
LARGE INDUSTRIES.
Edible Oil.

employed as a supervisor and was paid Rs. 375 as salary. Only groundnuts were crushed in it. About 90,006 maunds of groundnut valued at Rs. 1·8 lakhs and imported from Kolhapur and Karad were crushed in the factory in 1954. Wood was mainly used as a fuel. The factory consumed about 28 Bengali maunds of wood per day. It produced about 2,880 Bengali maunds of groundnut oil and 5,400 maunds of cake valued at Rs. 1·29 lakhs and Rs. 48,600, respectively in 1954.

Besides this unit, there were four other small units which were not registered under the Factories Act. They employed eight persons.

Cement Concrete Products.

Cement Concrete Products.—A factory manufacturing re-inforced cement concrete poles was started at Ratnagiri in 1953 with a capital investment of about Rs. 95,000, out of which Rs. 50,000 was working capital. In 1954, it had two oil engines of 30 BHP and 5 HP, one crusher, two moulding and re-inforcing machines, one drilling machine and two testing machines and 49 moulds. In the same year the factory employed 35 workers and paid total wages amounting to Rs. 16,000, including Rs. 6,000 as salaries to persons other than workers.

The factory required cement, steel wire, and metal (broken stone) as raw materials. It obtained cement and steel wire from Bombay. It consumed 500 tons of cement, 150 tons of steel wire and 500 tons of metal together valued at Rs. 1,60,000 in 1954, and produced re-inforced cement concrete pipes of different sizes worth Rs. 5 lakhs. The pipes or poles were supplied to the public as well to Municipalities, District Local Board and Public Works Department.

Bidi Making.

Bidi Making.—It is one of the common industries which is found in almost all towns and large villages. There were two factories registered under the Factories Act, one each at Deorukh in Sangmeshwar taluka and Hodawade in Vengurla taluka. The factory at Deorukh was started in 1920 and was registered under the Factories Act in 1950. There were many other small establishments making bidis mainly situated at Sawantwadi, Ratnagiri, Chiplun and other places. Out of the two factories, registered under the Factories Act, information about the one at Deorukh is available. It had Rs. 30,800 as productive capital. It employed 49 workers who were paid Rs. 19,467 as wages in 1954.

Raw Materials.

Raw materials consumed by the factory were tobacco and *tembri* leaves. Tobacco was imported from Nipani in Belgaum district and Jaisingpur in Kolhapur district. *Tembri* leaves were imported from Madhya Pradesh. The price of tobacco used in bidis varied from Rs. 55 to Rs. 60 for 28 lbs. in 1954 and from Rs. 45 to Rs. 50 in 1956. About 7½ tons of tobacco valued at Rs 36,000 and 220 lakhs of *tembri* leaves valued at Rs. 18,000, were consumed by the factory in the same year. Usually tobacco of medium quality and *kuda* leaves were used by small factories for making bidis. *Kuda* leaves

CHAPTER 6.
—
Industries.
LARGE INDUSTRIES.
Bidi Making.
Raw Materials.
Production.

were locally available. Making of 1,000 bidis requires about 30 tolas of tobacco. A bundle of *kuda* leaves containing about 750 leaves was sold for four annas. One small factory produced about five lakhs of bidis per month.

The total production of the factory at Deorukh was 200 lakhs bidis valued at Rs. 96,000 in 1954.

Bidis were manufactured by hand only. No machinery was required in this process. About 80 per cent. of the produce was exported to Bombay and the rest was consumed locally.

Button Manufacturing.

Button Manufacturing.—Aluminium buttons were manufactured by two concerns with the aid of machinery at Vijayadurg. There were small *karkhandars* also who manufactured similar buttons without the aid of machinery. The capital invested in these two factories was Rs. 71,882 in 1946. They used aluminium sheets and castings as raw materials which were imported from Bombay. In 1946, these two factories consumed 12 tons of aluminium sheets worth Rs. 20,521. In 1951, one factory consumed 63 cwt. of raw materials valued at Rs. 12,392.

II—SMALL INDUSTRIES.

Bidi-Making.

Bidi-Making.—It is one of the common industries found in almost all towns and large villages. Kudal, Malvan, Ratnagiri and Sawantwadi are a few important centres of bidi making which engage about 1,000 workers.

Tobacco which is required in bidi-making is brought from Belgaum, Nipani and Kolhapur. *Kuda* leaves used for wrapping are locally available. Some artisans use *tembri* or *tembhurni* leave for wrapping, which are brought from Nagpur.

Tools which are used in making bidis are a pair of scissors and a furnace. An average bidi worker makes 500 to 800 bidis in a day and a good worker about 1,000 bidis per day. The workers are paid at the rate of Rs. 2 for making 1,000 bidis.

The cost of production of 1,000 bidis comes to about Rs. 3-5-0 including labour charges. Some of the bidi manufacturing concerns in urban areas employ these artisans who work at their places.

The following process is adopted in bidi-making :—

Tembhurni or *kuda* leaves are soaked in water for about twelve hours to make them soft, after which they are put in a furnace to make them adaptable for further processing. Leaf is first cut to the required size and the artisan gives it the shape of bidi after putting in the necessary quantity of tobacco and rounding it with the help of his fingers. The bidis are assembled in bundles of 25 or 50 and put in a square sized metal tray for being slightly heated.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
SMALL INDUSTRIES.
Copper and Brass Metal Industry.

Copper and Brass Metal Industry.—Copper and brass metal industry is found mostly in northern parts of the district. Ratnagiri, Chiplun, Harnai, etc., are its chief centres. The artisans in the copper and brass industry work independently. They bring raw materials such as copper and brass plates from Bombay and manufacture copper and brass utensils for domestic use. Sometimes they are employed on piece rate basis by merchants who place orders with them and also supply them with the necessary brass and copper plates. The finished products are delivered to the merchant. An average artisan possesses a set of tools like an anvil, a hammer, a pair of scissors, a compass and pinches costing in all about Rs. 150.

Fibre Industry.

Fibre Industry.—It is one of the few important industries of the district and is mainly carried on in the southern parts of the district. Hemp which is used as the main raw material in fibre-making is grown extensively in Rajapur and Deogad talukas. It is well-known for its toughness and durability. Naturally Rajapur and Deogad are the main centres in which the industry is located. Hemp fibre is used in the manufacture of fishing nets.

No tools except a wooden spinning wheel are used in the making of fibre. To get an uniform quality of hemp staple, the Department of Cottage Industries have recently invented a new spinning wheel which is now being used by a few trained artisans. The new wheel has improved the quality and increased the quantity of fibre production which can now be used for deep water fishing.

The fibre is sold in local market and is also sent to Bombay and other coastal areas.

There were three fibres workers co-operative societies in 1959. They had 116 members, Rs. 1,701 as share capital, Rs. 116 as reserved fund. These societies produced fibre articles for domestic use also.

Fishing Industry.

Fishing Industry.—Ratnagiri district has a large sea coast convenient to fishing. There are 119 fishing villages and towns out of which Bankot, Dabhol, Jaigad, Jaitapur, Malvan, Ratnagiri, Vengurla and Vijayadurg are the important fishing centres. Out of a total fishing population of 70,000, about 21,000 are active fishermen.

The district was known for fishing ever since 16th century. Almost till the first half of this century, methods adopted for catching the fish were old and crude, they consisted of boats varying in weight from 4 to 9½ tons with one or two masts and nets varying in size from 10 to 20 feet in length and from 5 to 30 feet in breadth.

The fishermen now use tools and equipment like dugouts used for fishing in creeks, plank-built boats, *machwa* type boats and nets of different kinds like bag nets, drift and gill nets, ghol nets, wall nets, cast nets, hooks, lines, etc. The cost of dugout weighing about a ton is approximately 100 and of a plank-built boat and a *machwa* varies from Rs. 200 to Rs. 1,000 and from Rs. 500 to Rs. 5,000, respectively,

CHAPTER 6. — Industries. SMALL INDUSTRIES. *Fishing Industry.*

depending upon tonnage and size of a boat. In 1958, there were about 3,700 fishing boats in the district of which nine were mechanised. The life of these boats varies from 15 to 30 years depending upon their handling and preservation. The repairing of boats include caulking the gap with cotton waste, replacement of planks, painting, etc. The cost of repairs varies from Rs. 50 to Rs. 200.

It is a small scale industry in which fishermen pool all their resources and the catch as well. The catches are then divided among the active partners on the basis of investment of capital. An owner of the boat who is supposed to be an employer gets two shares from the fish catch. The rest of the catches are divided among the crew, each getting share according to the number of nets he has contributed. These fishermen are busy during spring tides. The industry is slack during monsoon when sea is stormy. Various kinds of fish like *surma, kurti moa, kokar, karel, jambosa, latar, valvas*, etc., weighing about 3,50,000 maunds and valued at Rs. 8,000,000 is annually caught on the Ratnagiri coast. Most of the fish is sold in local market and a small percentage which is processed is usually exported to Bombay and Poona.

Some fishermen extract oil from the liver of sharks. The fishermen on this coast are poor as the returns they get are considerably low due to the existence of middlemen. Their main difficulties are in respect of transportation and marketing facilities which are inadequate. There is, therefore, very little scope for export trade in fish.

There were nine fishermen's co-operative societies in the district in 1958-59.

Handloom Weaving.

Handloom Weaving.—In 1940, about 600 workers were estimated to be engaged in handloom weaving. This number has gone up considerably due to increase in the number of looms in the period thereafter. There are about 1,000 looms most of which are fly shuttle and pit looms. The industry is located at Khed, Dabhol, Guhagar, Kankavli, Kudal, Math, Oni and Sawantwadi.

Cotton yarn of different counts 20s, 30s and 40s which is imported from Bombay, is used in the manufacture of cloth by the artisans. The products manufactured are mostly *panchas, saris and* carpets to suit the needs of local population.

The main equipment of a weaver consists of a loom and its accessories such as shuttles, creel, bobbins, healds, pirns and dobbis. A handloom costs about Rs. 150. The total cost of equipment and tools varies with the number of tools an artisan possesses.

Production.

Panchas, Saris of medium variety and eight yards in length are the main goods produced. An average weaver is able to weave a sari per day and earns Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2. The products are mostly sold in local market.

CHAPTER 6.

Industries.
SMALL INDUSTRIES.
Handloom Weaving.

These artisans are always short of finance required for purchase of cotton yarn which is now supplied by co-operative societies to those who are their members. There were 10 weavers co-operative societies at the end of June 1959. They had 563 members owing 684 looms, Rs. 12,475 as paid up capital and Rs. 16,921 as reserve fund.

Leather Industry.

Leather Industry.—It is a most common industry, found all over the district. Dapoli, Chiplun, Ratnagiri, Malvan, Sawantwadi, and Vengurla are its important centres.

The industry required tanned leather for soles, dyed and fancy leather for uppers, tacks, nails, leather rings and polishing material. Most of these articles are brought from Bombay with the exception of sole leather which is brought from Satara and Kolhapur.

A pair of scrapers, iron, spike, *ari*, *hasti*, anvil, hammer and wooden blocks are the main tools required in leather working. An average artisan keeps a set of equipment worth Rs. 10 to Rs. 15. Very few artisans possess leather sewing machines.

The main products are *chappals*, having three soles. A good artisan produces three pairs of *chappals* in two days and gets about Rs. 16 including his wages. Each pair is sold at Rs. 5-8-0 or Rs. 6.

The products are sold mostly in local market. Artisans in rural areas do not get work sufficient to keep them busy throughout the year. Naturally they supplement their income by working as farm labourers.

There were four leather workers co-operative societies which had 89 members, Rs. 1,900 as paid up capital and Rs. 458 as reserve fund, in 1958-59.

Salt Industry.

Salt Industry.—Although the district has a large coastal length, salt is not manufactured on a large scale as the soil is not favourable to its production Shiroda, a village in Vengurla is the only major centre of salt manufacturing in the district. Small salt pans covering an area of less than 10 acres each are found at Malvan, Ratnagiri and Vengurla proper; but the percentage of production of salt at these centres is very small. About 100 workers are employed in the peak season at Shiroda. The industry provides employment to a few persons. The wages of these workers vary from Rs. 1·25 to 1·75 per day.

Pick-axe to excavate the soil, *phavada* to collect salt and a rake to facilitate a compact growth after breaking salt crystals are the few tools required in salt making. This set of tools costs about Rs. 25.

The total production of salt in 1947 was 49,000 Bengali Maunds valued at Rs. 45,000. The product is sold in local market as well as sent to Belgaum, Kolhapur, and other places in Ratnagiri district.

There were two *mithagar kamgar* co-operative societies, one at Ratnagiri and the other at Shiroda in 1958-59. They had 71 members, Rs. 1,210 as paid up capital and Rs. 625 as reserve fund in the same year.

III—LABOUR ORGANISATION.

LABOUR ORGANISATION.

The district is essentially rural in character and has very few organised industries. Out of the total population of 1,711,964, hardly about 1,500 were engaged in organised industries in 1954. There was therefore no scope for the organisation of trade unions. The only trade union which was in existence was the State Transport Workers Union. It was registered under the Trade Unions Act, on 28th September 1953.

The union had 209 members at the end of March 1954. Its source of income was contributions collected from members. The total income of the union in 1953-54 was Rs. 1,258. Its main item of expenditure was maintenance of establishment on which it spent Rs. 360 in 1953-54. The union had no fund but had assets valued at Rs. 898. It had no liabilities. It was affiliated to the Indian National Trade Union Congress.

Labour Legislation.

The relations between industrial employees and employers have been regulated with the enacting of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, by the Government of Bombay and the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, enacted by the Central Government. The former was brought into force in the old Bombay State on 29th September 1947 and the latter on 1st April 1947. Both the laws provide a machinery for settlement of industrial disputes either by conciliation or by arbitration under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act or conciliation or adjudication under the Industrial Disputes Act.

No union from this district was registered as a Representative Union under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act; similarly no case was referred to the Industrial Court, to the Industrial Tribunal, or to Labour Court from this district during 1950-54. The district did not have any welfare centres and the Employees State Insurance Act and the Employees Provident Fund Act, 1952, were not applied to any industry in it.

CHAPTER 7—FINANCE.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.
INTRODUCTION.

It is intended to describe in the present chapter the operations of the various economic and credit institutions obtaining in the field of finance of this district, such as the money lender, the co-operative societies, the commercial banks, the joint stock companies, and other official and demi-official bodies. Prosperity of a district and its material development depend to a very large extent upon how effectively and successfully do these institutions carry on their functions in the interest of the public.

From the economic point of view, the district of Ratnagiri is very backward. Acute shortage of cultivable land and low yield of agricultural produce have made the people extremely poor. They are left with no alternative employment than agriculture due to the lack of any substantial development of industries. Difficulties of transport and inadequacy of the means of communications, again, add to their distress. Import facilities, too, are meagre.

During the past few years, however, the economy of the district is undergoing some notable changes especially as a result of social and political forces operating in the country as a whole. These changes include among them a gradual replacement of the money-lenders class by a net-work of banking institutions organised on modern lines, widening of public sector and simultaneous shrinkage in private sector, active interest taken by the State in promoting the welfare of the agricultural classes and particularly of the fishing community, and lastly the rapid spread of the co-operative movement throughout the district. These manifold changes materially affect the economy of the district and underline the importance of the role played by these institutions.

It will not be out of place to make here a special mention of the two schemes recently introduced by the Government to augment its financial resources. The first is the Small Savings Drive launched by the Government to evoke amongst the people a spirit of co-operation and mutual help and encourage them to contribute their humble mite to pool a mighty reserve. The second and more important perhaps, is the creation of the Life Insurance Corporation consequent

CHAPTER 7. — Finance. INTRODUCTION.

upon the nationalisation of the life insurance business in the year 1956. An attempt is made in the following pages to give an account of how these changes have affected the economy of the district.

MONEY-LENDERS.

MONEY-LENDERS.—When the old Ratnagiri Gazetteer was published there was not a single modern banking organisation in the district. In towns, the only classes who saved were traders, money-lenders, Government servants and occasionally skilled artisans, whereas in rural areas, usurers and shop-keepers alone put by money. The only agency for purveying credit was that of money-lenders who, however, did not open deposit accounts. In '*khoti*' village the hereditary or *vatandar khots*, who received most of their dues in kind, were the chief grain dealers and money-lenders. None of these except the Gujars and Brahmans were strict about keeping a regular daybook and ledger. The interest was generally charged for the '*shak*' year and it ranged between 12 and 24 per cent. for a loan secured by pledging gold or silver ornaments or other movable property. In some cases, loan was given on the security of the coming crop to agriculturists who were often compelled to borrow particularly during the rainy season.

This old financial structure underwent a change during the last few decades due to rapid spread of modern banking and co-operative institutions in the district. Even then, money-lenders occupy a dominant position in the provision of credit especially to the agriculturists' class. According to the All India Rural Credit Survey conducted by the Reserve Bank of India, between 1951 and 1954, the private agencies taken together supplied about 93% of the total amount borrowed by cultivators, out of which money-lenders accounted for 70%.

The money-lenders as a class differ from indigenous bankers. They do not accept deposits from the public, are not particular about the purpose for which the loan is taken and also do not insist upon security-factors which dominate the operations of the indigenous banker. Methods of their lending are simple and flexible and people, especially farmers, find it easy to understand and adjust themselves to the money-lender who is their easiest and nearest source of finance.

This class of money-lenders represents a variety of interests because very few of them are money-lenders exclusively. Practically each combines with money-lending some other business. Therefore, the only basis of classifying them into categories is provided by their area of operation, viz., the town money-lender and the village money-lender. The field of operation of the former is larger than that of the latter, as small merchants, workers and salaried employees, and occasionally small industrialists constitute his clientele as against the village money-lender, who advances loans usually to agriculturists.

Money-lending has always been a peculiar feature of the self-sufficient village economy of the past when the money-lender had an honoured and useful role to play and was generally alive to his duties and responsibilities. In many cases, however, he was known to have exploited unfairly the illiteracy, ignorance and necessity of the borrower.

The Central Banking Enquiry Committee has listed many mal-practices the money-lenders generally indulge in, such as demand for advance interest, manipulation of accounts, insertion of sums in excess of those actually lent in written documents; taking of thumb impressions on blank paper to deceive the borrower, etc.

Money-lenders Act of 1946.

Money-lenders Act of 1946.—In order to check such malpractices of money-lenders and to safeguard the interests of agriculturists, the then Government of Bombay passed on 17th September, 1947, the Money-lenders Act. By this Act, money-lenders are forbidden to carry on the business of money-lending unless they are in possession of a licence granted to them by the Registrar of Money-Lenders. They are further compelled to keep and maintain a cash-book and a ledger in a prescribed form and in a particular manner. The Registrar and the Assistant Registrar are authorised by the State Government to verify the business of money-lenders. The Government has the right to fix the maximum rates of interest for any local area or a class of business of money-lending in respect of secured and unsecured loans. The debtor class is also protected by inflicting penalty on money-lenders for molestation to debtors and by abolishing the system of arrest and imprisonment of debtors in execution of decrees for dues against agricultural debtors.

The Act was subsequently amended. The important amendments made, were the introduction of 4-A and 5-A forms and the Pass Book system, provision of calculating interest on *katmiti* system and facilities to certain classes of money-lenders permitting them to submit quarterly statements of loans to the Registrar of Money-lenders. Further amendment was effected in 1955 by which money-lending without a licence was made a cognizable offence. In the following year special measures were adopted for protecting Backward Class people, and Registrars and Assistant Registrars were instructed to take special care while checking up accounts of money-lenders in respect of their transactions with Backward Class people.

Rate of Interest.

Some provisions of the amendment also gave protection to money-lenders so as to call forth capital which became shy as the money-lenders regarded the Act as offending in spirit. The structure of interest rates was revised and was put into force from the 5th July, 1952, raising maximum rates from 6 per cent. to 9 per cent. per annum on secured and 9 to 12 per cent. per annum on unsecured loans. In addition, the money-lenders were allowed to charge a minimum

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.
MONEY-LENDERS.

interest of Re. one per debtor per year, if the total amount of interest chargeable according to the prescribed rates in respect of the loans advanced during the year amounted to less than a rupee. The revision in the structure of interest rates did not result in a substantial increase in the number of licensed money-lenders. According to the Annual Administration Report of the Bombay Money-lenders Act, 1955-56, "Money-lenders as a class are naturally averse to being regimented into any system of maintaining accounts with the concomitant limitations of the lending rates of interest."

The following table describes the relative positions of money-lenders who advance loans to traders and non-traders against the security of gold, silver, and other articles and utensils and promissory notes. The rates of interest charged are 9 per cent. on the secured loan and 12 per cent. on the unsecured loan as per section No. 25 of the Bombay Money-lenders Act of 1946.

TABLE No. 1.

LOANS ADVANCED BY MONEY-LENDERS TO TRADERS AND NON-TRADERS IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Year.	No. of money lenders holding valid licences.	Loans advanced to Traders by		Loans advanced to Non-Traders by	
		Money lenders not exempted under section 22 of the Act.	Money lenders exempted under section 22 of the Act.	Money lenders not exempted under section 22 of the Act.	Money lenders exempted under section 22 of the Act.
1948-49	136	....	....	....	....
1949-50	..	1,05,014	10,31,317	1,99,285	2,07,183
1950-51	102	97,655	9,65,926	2,08,803	3,07,842
1951-52	105	83,800	13,32,411	2,00,440	2,30,995
1952-53	96	....	....	....	....
1953-54	87	76,030	....	1,76,631	....
1954-55	91	90,306	....	1,71,950	....
1955-56	71	1,58,557	....	1,47,734	....

It is clear from the foregoing table that in Ratnagiri district, the number of money-lenders holding valid licences decreased considerably during the last few years. In the year 1948-49, there were in all 136 money-lenders in the district. Their number, however, fell to 105 in 1951-52 and to 71 in 1955-56. Further, although there was an increase in the amount of loans that were advanced to traders especially by those money-lenders who were exempted under section 22 of the Act, there was a slight decrease in the amounts of loans advanced by them to non-traders. For example, while the loans advanced to traders by money-lenders (not exempted under section 22 of the Act), rose from Rs. 83,809 in 1951 to Rs. 1,58,557 in 1955-56, the loans advanced to non-traders fell sharply from Rs. 2,09,440 in 1951-52 to Rs. 1,47,734 in 1955-56. The decrease in the total number of money-lenders and in the sums advanced by them to non-traders in the district might be attributed to the fact that the cultivating class that formed the majority of non-traders could get financial assistance from the Government in the form of tagai loans and had, therefore, little need to approach the money-lenders. Moreover, on account of the stringent rules and regulations, many of the money-lenders did not renew their licences. With the recent increase in the maximum rates of interest, a substantial increase in the number of licensed money-lenders was expected. However, these expectations do not seem to have materialised; on the contrary, the importance of money-lenders is gradually on the decline. But they will continue to play their useful role in the credit structure of our economy at least for some years to come until the co-operative movement spreads much more vigorously.

Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act.

Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act.—Even before the Money-lenders Act was passed, the Government had brought into operation on a small scale, the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1939. It was enacted with a view to reducing the aggregate indebtedness of genuine agriculturists so as to bring it reasonably within the compass of their capacity to repay. The term "agriculturist" as defined in the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act, 1879, which too had been enacted to deal with the problem of agricultural indebtedness, was found to be actually bringing into its fold not only genuine agriculturists of the cultivator class, but also pseudo-agriculturists. Under the term "debtor" as defined in the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, the indebted person must be a holder of land and must also be cultivating land personally. Further his income from sources other than agriculture should not exceed a certain maximum limit. Income from land got cultivated by tenants was to be regarded as non-agricultural income under the Act.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

AGRICULTURAL DEBTORS' RELIEF ACT.

The application of the Act has been restricted to debts not exceeding Rs. 15,000 in any individual case. The rate of interest in case of awards should not exceed six per cent. per annum or such less rate as may be notified in that behalf by the State Government or the rate agreed upon by the parties between whom the debt was originally incurred or the rate allowed by the decree in respect of such debts, whichever is lowest. Government fixed (in 1948-49) four per cent. per annum as the rate of interest for purposes of awards made under section 32 (2) of the Act. In case of awards passed in favour of land mortgage banks under section 33, the bank is entitled to recover the amount due to it from the debtor together with interest at such rate as the State Government may notify in this regard. Six per cent. per annum was the rate of interest fixed by Government for purposes of awards made under section 33 (3) of the Act. However, this has been revised to 7½ per cent. under a Government Notification, dated 12th October 1953.

The Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act was made applicable in this district, firstly to Khed, Mandangad (Peta), Chiplun, Rajapur, Lanje (Mahal), Deogad and Kankavli (Mahal) talukas on 1st May 1945 and later to Dapoli, Malvan, Vengurla (Peta), Ratnagiri and Guhagar talukas on 1st February 1947. The accompanying table shows the administration of this Act in Ratnagiri district from 1946-47 to 1954-55.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

AGRICULTURAL DEBTORS' RELIEF ACT.

Statistics of working.

TABLE No. 2.

WORKING OF THE BOMBAY AGRICULTURAL DEBTORS' RELIEF ACT IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT DURING THE PERIOD FROM 1946 TO 1955.

Period.	Number of applications disposed of—				Amount involved in application shown in column				Amounts by which Debts are reduced.	Awards taken by Land Mortgage Banks.	
	On preliminary issues.	By adjudicating debtors as insolvent.	By passing awards.	for other reasons.							
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)		No.	Amount.
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.
1946 to 1950 ..	7,656	309	10,479	32,301	31,90,336	1,24,096	31,15,894	35,94,487	38,03,015	64	13,840
1950–51 ..	2,850	46	3,524	5,972	11,17,524	13,521	11,15,664	13,08,446	11,14,707	3	2,638
1951–52 ..	1,490	6	1,869	2,194	6,82,266	1,200	5,24,273	3,99,273	5,57,502	..	..
1952–53 ..	377	..	627	381	2,28,241	..	2,58,673	1,21,393	1,72,188	..	..
1953–54 ..	163	..	169	37	77,187	..	75,789	20,356	52,390	..	..
1954–55 ..	105	..	39	6	87,402	..	9,326	6,601	7,857	..	..

CHAPTER 7. Finance. CROP FINANCE.

The Government instituted the system of crop or seasonal finance when it was found that there was shortage of credit in the rural areas. The system is intended to fill in the vacuum in the credit facilities caused mainly by legislation relating to debt relief, money-lending and land tenure passed during the last few years.

The advances by way of crop or seasonal finance are secured by the crops given by debtors. These advances are essentially short-term in character and their chief object is to finance, at reasonable rate of interest, agricultural operations connected with the raising of crops. The principal agencies recognised for grant of crop or seasonal finance are the following :—

(*i*) Co-operative Societies.
(*ii*) Revenue Department (Tagai Loans).
(*iii*) Grain Depots.
(*iv*) Persons authorised under section 54 of the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1947.

Among these agencies the Government policy is to advance finance as far as possible through the co-operative societies. But in Ratnagiri District advances of crop or seasonal finance were made either through the agency of revenue department or through grain depots. Table given below shows these advances for a period from 1946-47 to 1949-50.

TABLE No. 3.

ADVANCES OF CROP OR SEASONAL FINANCE THROUGH REVENUE DEPARTMENT OR GRAIN DEPOTS DISBURSED IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Year.	No. of applications.	Amount of finance applied for.	Amount advanced.	Amount recovered.	Amount out-standing at the end of the year.	Amount of overdues	
						Authorised.	Un-authorised.
		Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs.
1946-47 ..	360	75,075	13,540	9,815	6,728	5,475	1,250
1947-48 ..	226	27,485	13 365	9,588	10,507	8,649	2,458
1948-49 ..	300	20,890	13,320	11,662	6,630	2,150	4,100
1949-50 ..	461	1,775	1,250	4,977	2,603	..	2,603
1950-51 ..	..	..	..	1,285	1,318	..	1,318

CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT.

CO-OPERATIVE CREDIT SOCIETIES AND BANKS.—The co-operative movement in this district embraces various aspects of economic activities such as extension of agricultural credit and reorganisation of agriculture, processing and marketing of agricultural produce, sale of agricultural and domestic requisites, organisation of subsidiary and cottage industries. Under the perview of the co-operative department, therefore, are included the working of the various co-operative credit societies, multi-purpose societies, land mortgage banks

and non-agricultural credit societies like urban co-operative banks, etc. The following pages briefly describe the growth of these various societies and their operations *vis-a-vis* the economic development of the district.

The peculiar geographical position and the backward nature of the district economy were partly responsible for the late onset of the radical changes that were taking place in the agricultural, industrial and financial sections of the economies of other districts such as Jalgaon, Satara, Poona, etc. Co-operative movement, too, made its appearance as late as the thirties of the twentieth century. The pace of its development, however, was accelerated, especially during recent years owing to the special efforts on the part of the government. The period following the Second War, thus, witnessed a comparatively large growth of co-operative societies in the Ratnagiri District. In 1959, the total number of societies registered in this district was 566, which covered Grain Banks, Multi-purpose Societies, Fisheries, Mining and Industrial Societies and also includes the District Central Bank which was registered in 1956. The Large-Size Multi-purpose Societies which are of a recent origin and number about five are also the part and parcel of co-operative movement. The following statement indicates the general progress achieved by the co-operative movement in this district during the period of five years from 1953-54 to 1957-58.

TABLE No. 4.

THE PROGRESS OF CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT DURING RECENT YEARS IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Particulars.	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58
1. No. of Societies.	428	462	507	513	566
2. No. of Members.	65,043	65,206	68,497	72,876	80,759
3. Share Capital.	16,79,063	17,32,319	19,05,852	20,59 943	22,15,826
4. Revenue and other funds.	11,71,965	12,62,280	13,36,681	14,41,294	14,78,669
5. Loans held from					
(a) Provincial Banks ..	7,94,821	3,10,844	13,72.849	18,94,252	10,92.393
(b) Government	1,14,044	36,071	1,38,499	1,28,903	1,56,620
6. Deposits from :					
(a) Members ..	58,40,679	61,84,447	57,24.977	33,45,497	22,49,704
(b) Non-members	3,26,858	4.93,218	8,08,054	25.54,240	27,67,430
(c) Societies ..	2,29,654	3,65.438	2,80,181	2.93,745	3,98.359
7. Working Capital.	1,00,85.296	105,46,969	101,67,796	1,20,22,392	1,12,40,047
8. Cost of Management.	3,83,100	4,87,507	4,95.381	3,86,351	3,85.977
9. Profits ..	1,36,013	90,505	1,44,871	1,68,564	1,51,861
10. Losses ..	31,878	45,130	26,238	32,547	21,215

The table detailed above clearly shows that the co-operative movement has not lapsed since its inception but has made considerable progress in all fields such as membership, number of societies, working capital, etc.

Agricultural Credit Societies. Constitution.

Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.—These societies, constituting the bulk of the co-operative credit societies, supply short term and intermediate term (not exceeding five years) finance to agriculturists. Each society has usually only a single village as its area of operation, but in some cases hamlets and smaller villages in the neighbourhood for which it is not possible to organise separate societies are also included in its jurisdiction. Membership is open to all residents of that area who satisfy certain conditions laid down in the bye-laws.

Funds.

Funds are raised in any or by all of the following ways, *viz.*, (*a*) entrance fees, (*b*) issue of shares, (*c*) receiving deposits from (i) members, and (ii) non-members residing within a radius of five miles from the village where the society is located, (*d*) raising loans and overdrafts from other co-operative credit societies or from financing institutions, and (3) donations. The societies accept saving deposits and fixed deposits of not less than six months duration. Savings deposits are accepted from members only on conditions laid down in the bye-laws. The rate of interest on deposits is fixed by the managing committee, with the previous approval of the financing agency.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.

Statistics of working.

TABLE No. 5.

STATISTICS OF WORKING OF AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES (UNLIMITED) IN THE RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

(Excluding land mortgage banks).

Year.	Number of Societies with membership in brackets.	Loans made during the year to.		Loans due from.			Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from.		
		Individuals.	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Banks and Societies.	Members.	Non-members.	Societies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1951-52	112 (10,020)	1,39,404	....	2,51,256	89,094	....	1,21,811	390	411
1952-53	117 (?0,803)	1,50,545	....	2,67,978	98,053	....	98,916	29,551	104
1953-54	118 (11,174)	1,65,130	....	2,94,671	1,12,371	...	69,029	25,160	....
1954-55	118 (11,419)	1,74,214	....	3,11,369	1,17,144	....	56,551	29,491	....
1955-56	119 (11,489)	1,90,396	....	3,38,428	1,23,743	....	52,839	37,819	....
1956•57	119 (11,542)	2,02,391	....	3,64,878	1,23,334	....	47,455	25,174	....

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.

Statistics of working.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

Year.	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from.		Share Capital.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profit and Loss Account.	Rate of Interest.	
	Provincial or Central bank.	Government.						On borrowing.	On lending
1	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1951-52	18,823	....	123,145	95,092	16,177	1,18,305	+3,564 —2,738	4 ..	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1952-53	15,294	345	1,33,427	1,00,274	18,701	3,96,612	+13,033 —4,480	2 to 4 ..	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $7\frac{13}{16}$
1953-54	19,421	....	1,47,131	1,03,099	14,258	3,78,098	+13,066 —1,755	$3\frac{1}{8}$ to $4\frac{1}{8}$	$7\frac{13}{16}$
1954-55	21,879	....	1,52,529	1,05,927	16,460	3,82,837	+10,066 —2,493	2 to 4	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $7\frac{13}{16}$
1955-56	26,681	....	1,59,175	1,09,411	18,450	4,04,375	+13,291 —1,747	2 to 4	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $7\frac{13}{16}$
1956-57	31,202	....	1,66,728	1,27,015	26,831	4,24,405	+12,612 —2,465	2 to 4	6 to $7\frac{13}{16}$

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.
Statistics of working.

TABLE No. 6.

STATISTICS OF WORKING OF AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES LTD. IN THE RATNAGIRI DISTRICT (1951-52 to 1956-57).

Year.	Number of Societies.	Number of members.	Loans made during the year to.		Loans due from		Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from.		
			Individuals.	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Members.	Non-members.	Societies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1951-52	164	23,202	2,18,381	....	2,25,865	40,657	1,72,698	44,180	4,463
1952-53	1,721	24,255	2,28,960	....	2,74,299	62,718	1,44,946	46,264	....
1953-54	187	26,321	2,71,227	....	3,34,915	73,477	1,20,395	24,609	....
1954-55	195	27,212	3,52,479	....	4,38,497	1,17,303	88,471	23,065	....
1955-56	203	27,335	5,25,824	....	5,55,375	1,51,624	60,325	92,548	688
1956-57	202	29,358	7,48,001	....	7,33,376	1,68,700	93,948	84,761	7,428

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.

Statistics of working.

TABLE No. 6—*contd.*

Year.	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from		Share Capital.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profit and Loss.	Usual rates of interest.	
	Provincial or Central Bank.	Government.						On borrowing.	On Lending.
1	11	12	3	14	15	16	17	18	19
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1951-52	70,915	9,333	42,545	96,101	76,933	8,99,668	+38,788 —5,262	4	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{3}{8}$
1952-53	44,697	7,000	4,47,221	1,21,948	94,721	9,06,797	+34,737 —5,910	2 to 4	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $7\frac{13}{16}$
1953-54	65,307	7,930	4,63,950	1,32,901	1,10,329	9,26,071	+25,054 —4,094	....	....
1954-55	68,660	7,000	4,78,835	1,61,246	1,11,073	9,38,353	+17,776 —9,140	2 to 4	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $7\frac{13}{16}$
1955-56	1,11,764	3,844	5,08,915	1,74,746	1,04,923	10,57,751	+19,783 —5,707	2 to 4	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $7\frac{13}{16}$
1956-57	2,19,142	3,207	5,40,387	1,83,130	1,56,405	12,88,321	+43,258 —4,307	2 to 4	6 to $7\frac{13}{16}$

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.

Statistics of working.

TABLE No. 7.

STATISTICS OF WORKING OF NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES (UNLIMITED) IN THE RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Year	Number of Societies.	Number of Members.	Loans made during the year to		Loans due from			Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from.		
			Individuals	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Banks.	Members.	Non-members.	Societies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1951-52 ..	1	23	10,800	....	9,750	....	....	563	1,684	....
1952-53 ..	1	24	12,350	....	10,850	....	....	598	9,508	....
1953-54 ..	1	24	16,000	....	15,600	....	....	559	12,724	....
1954-55 ..	1	26	....	....	....	....	....	519	14,062	....
1955-56 ..	1	26	17,100	....	16,050	....	....	579	14,132	....

Year.	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from		Share Capital.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profit and Loss Account.	Rate of Interest.	
	Provincial or Central Bank.	Government						on borrowing.	on lending.
1	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1951-52 ..	....	....	1,230	7,279	5,503	16,259	+1,381	6¼	6¼
1952-53 ..	3,216	....	1,550	7,825	6,363	29,060	+1,383	6¼	6¼
1953-54 ..	....	....	1,560	8,355	6,232	29,436	+1,160	....	....
1954-55 ..	....	....	1,690	8,782	7,198	32,251	1,026	....	....
1955-56 ..	....	....	1,680	9,140	7,730	33,201	+1,059	....	....

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.

Statistics of working.

TABLE No 6.

STATISTICS OF WORKING OF NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES IN THE RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Year.		Number of Societies.	Number of members.	Loans made during the year to.		Loans due from			Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from.		
				Individuals	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Banks.	Members.	Non-members	Societies.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1951-52	..	40	13,982	84,13,443	....	40,33,730	3,74,417	....	23,41,153	21,56,861	1,44,742
1952-53	..	40	15,052	79,48,593	....	40,93,984	5,85,641	....	40,16,194	7,15,951	87,763
1953-54 I	..	1	24	16,000	....	15,600	....	....	559	12,724	....
II	..	40	15,246	81,85,693	....	41,44,737	3,09,574	....	53,65,423	4,16,693	64,689
1954-55	..	38	16,154	76,07,697	....	45,08,974	4,41,598	....	59,94,899	3,62,479	3,05,393
1955-55 [1]	..	38	16,709	87,84,943	....	50,02,786	8,66,720	....	53,66,301	6,45,202	2,79,204
1956-57 [2]	..	38	16,948	88,64,182	....	52,59,083	13,08,523	....	31,84,858	24,22,630	2,75,065

[1] Including banks.

[2] Figures are for both limited and unlimited Non-Agricultural Credit Societies.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.

Statistics of working.

TABLE No. 8—contd.

Year.		Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from.		Share Capital.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profit and Loss Account.	Rate of Interest.	
		Provincial or Central Bank.	Government						on borrowing.	on lending.
1		12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1951-52*	..	9,66,048	33,260	8,72,441	2,90,818	2,27,142	70,32,465	+41,14,770 —700	....	....
1952-53	..	7,11,258	36,520	9,26,514	3,38,730	2,66,396	70,99,326	+98,444 —2,315	2 to 4	6¼ to 9⅜
1953-54 I*	..	....	....	1,560	8,355	6,232	29,436	+1,166	....	....
II*	..	6,93,951	35,581	9,42,673	3,75,555	2,99,623	81,94,758	+92,285 —2,754	....	....
1954-55	..	2,01,614	6.780	9,72,878	4,08,550	3,37,898	85,90,490	+49,174 —3,009	2 to 4	6¼ to 9⅜.
1955-56	.	12,30,927	....	9,93,593	4,29,646	3,43,818	92,88,781	+65,626 —3,575	2 to 4	6¼ to 9⅜
1956-57	..	15,49,188	2,368	10,13,443	4,52,823	3,58,499	92,58,874	+73,580 —9,304	½ to 4	6 to 9⅝

*Interest rate on borrowing and lending not available.

Loans are granted for agricultural and domestic purposes. They may be for a short term (not exceeding one year) or for an intermediate term (not exceeding three and, in some cases, five years). Short term loans are granted for purposes of meeting expenses on seed, manure, weeding, etc. Intermediate term loans are granted for two purposes, *viz.*, (i) purchase of bullock-carts, iron implements, etc., and ceremonial expenses (the period of the loan being three years) and (2) payment of old debts and works of land improvement (the period of the loan being five years.).

Normal credit limits are fixed for each member and loans beyond this limit are not advanced. The total outstandings by way of loans cannot, in the case of any member exceed ten times the amount of shares standing to his credit in the society. Loans are given mostly on the personal security of the borrower supplemented by two good sureties who are members of the society. The society may also take mortgage of immovable property or of crops as collateral security. Loans are given in cash, but where the purpose of the loan permits and a suitable organisation exists loans are advanced in kind.

The rate of interest charged by agricultural co-operative credit societies depends upon their financial position as also on the rate at which they borrow from the financing agency. They have taken steps to reduce the rate of interest without loss to themselves. Government also offered various facilities by way of subsidies to meet certain expenses of the societies.

The number of Agricultural Credit and Thrift and Credit Societies (including Multipurpose societies) in 1956-57 was 378, while the number of members during this period was 43,410. In 1957-58, however, the total number of these societies increased to 424 with a membership of 49,144. This increase was due mainly to the registration of as many as 25 grain societies during the year. These societies cover 1,165 villages out of 1,515 villages in the District, i.e., 78·2 per cent. of the villages have been brought within the sphere of the agricultural credit movement. In terms of population the co-operative movement has embraced 13·14 per cent. of the rural population of the district. The borrowings from the central financing agencies and the Government have increased considerably on account of efforts made to enhance the rate of advance to the agriculturist members and the registration of the Grain Banks which have been granted Government loan.

The movement in respect of the expansion of agricultural credit in this district is steadily getting momentum and is meeting the financial needs of the agriculturists in rural areas as far as possible. The first object behind expansion and improvement in the working of the Agricultural Credit Societies is ultimately to bring all the villages within the ambit of the movement. The realisation of this objective is nearing fruition as 78·2 per cent. of the total number of villages have been brought under co-operative movement. The second object of the movement, that of bringing a larger percentage of population

under its fold has not been a success, as, so far only 16·05 per cent. of the rural population has been covered by the movement.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES

The rural primary societies are granted subsidies to meet the secretarial cost on the conditions laid down by the Government in accordance with the recommendations of the "Nanawati Committee".

MULTI-PURPOSE SOCIETIES.

Multi-purpose Societies.—These societies are also essentially credit societies but their objects are wider in so far as they combine marketing of agricultural produce with the provision of credit.

The multi-purpose societies came into existence only 15 years ago. The joint report submitted by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies and Shri V. L. Mehta in accordance with the Government Resolution of 1947, recommended the organisation of multi-purpose societies and suggested that where marketing facilities or suitable market places are available in the immediate neighbourhood, a multi-purpose society for a group of villages within a radius of five miles should be registered with the object of supplying the normal cultivation needs of its members, who in their turn were to execute an agreement binding themselves to bring all their marketable produce for sale to the society. This recommendation was accepted by the Government.

The multi-purpose society, besides providing credit, aims at supplying such agricultural requisites as seed, manures, feeding stuffs, etc., and also domestic and other requisites to members and at making arrangements for the joint sale of their produce. It can make advances against the members' agricultural produce. The multi-purpose society is in a better position than the ordinary credit societies in averting misapplication of loans and irregularity in their repayment. These societies are not intended to replace the ordinary credit societies. They represent a further stage of evolution of agricultural co-operative credit societies and are able to help in many ways such credit societies as are located within the area of their operation. They are also better suited to serve the needs of debtors whose debts have been adjusted under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors Relief Act.

The multi-purpose societies also have made considerable progress during recent years. In 1957-58, their number was 236 with a membership of 34,401 and they covered 979 villages according to the Annual Administration Report of the Co-operative Movement in the district for that year.

These multi-purpose societies play a very useful role in not only meeting the agricultural credit but also in supplying the other agricultural and domestic requirements of the agriculturists from their area of operation. However, due to the peculiar conditions of the district and the low agricultural economy, the multi-purpose societies have no real scope in enhancing their usefulness of services.

CHAPTER 7. — Finance. MULTI-PURPOSE SOCIETIES.

In accordance with the recommendations of "All India Rural Credit Survey Committee", it was proposed to organise 15 large-sized multi-purpose societies in the district. So far five big economical units have been organised by the incorporation of existing societies.

Grain Depots and Grain Banks.

Grain Depots and Grain Banks.—During war-time Government started a number of grain-depots. Forty-six such depots were in existence in 1945. The Government, later on decided upon converting depots into banks. This policy of conversion of grain depots into grain banks did not succeed much as the set-up of the grain depots was not found to be satisfactorily working and suitable for such conversion.

Ratnagiri is a deficit district in respect of food grains. Government, therefore, sanctioned a special scheme for the organisation of grain banks at a cost of Rs. 1,64,000. Under this scheme a total loan of Rs. 99,800 only was disbursed to 35 grain societies during the years 1954-55 and 1955-56. This indicates non-utilisation of the full amount sanctioned for the scheme. During the financial year 1957-58, eleven grain societies from the district have received total loans amounting to Rs. 10,700, under the above scheme.

Central Financing Agencies.

Central Financing Agencies.—Uptill now the Bombay State Co-operative Bank Ltd., with its branches in the District was functioning as Central Financing Agency for the district. Now the District Central Co operative Bank, which was registered during the last year functions as Central Financing Agency for the district.

NON AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.

Non-Agricultural Societies.—Urban Banks: There are in all eight Co-operative Urban Banks in this district. They provide finance for trade, industry and agriculture on the security of agricultural and mercantile goods. Loans are also advanced to petty borrowers. Some banks have introduced small savings scheme for the benefit of their members.

CHAPTER 7.
Finance.
NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.
URBAN BANKS.
Statistics of working.

TABLE No. 9.

The following table indicates the resources, the financial operations and the progress achieved by the urban banks, in this district from 1951 to 1958.

Year.	Number of Societies.	Number of Members.	Loans made during the year to		Loans due from			Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from		
			Individuals.	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Banks and Societies.	Members.	Non-members.	Societies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1951-52	8	7,338	77,05,184	....	35,37,076	3,42,592	....	18,76,902	21,12,160	1,44,742
1952-53	8	7,746	71,60,858	....	35,42,296	5,39,279	...	39,35,558	6,47,975	87,263
1953-54	8	8.194	73,44,289	....	35,36,723	2,74,046	....	47,43.910	3,76,365	64,689
1954-55	8	8,855	66,16.098	....	38,43,993	4,01,177	....	52,73,103	3,45,871	3,05,393
1955-56	6	9,402	77,17,270	....	42,50,513	8,32,247	....	45,60,471	6,19,734	2,79,204
1956-57	8	9.928	75,20,127	....	43,69,635	12,76,919	....	23,39,619	23,82,825	2,75,065
1957-58	8	10,519	....	....	44,39,775	13,76,941	....	17,01,170	33,80,079	Fig. NA.

CHAPTER 7.
—
Finance.
NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES.
URBAN BANKS.
Statistics of working.

TABLE No. 9—*contd.*

Year.	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from Provincial or Government. Central bank		Share Capital.	Reserve Fund.	Other Funds.	Working Capital.	Profit and Loss Account.	Rate of Interest. on borrowing.	Rate of Interest. on lending.
1	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1951–52 ..	8,89,621	....	6,51,552	2,29,883	1,84,997	60,89,887	+93,585	1 to 4	4 to 9
1952–53 ..	6,68,219	....	6,80,017	2,69,456	2,12,146	65,00,634	+72,996	2 to 4	4 to 9$\frac{1}{2}$
1953–54 ..	6,72,677	....	6,84,288	3,00,376	2,45,715	70,87,920	+74,526	..	....
1954–55 ..	1,97,888	....	6,95,043	3,30,206	2,63,780	74,01,254	+61,760	3$\frac{1}{2}$%	8%
1955–56 ..	11,92,243	....	,86,933	3,47,196	2,82,645	79,70,426	+51,620 —617	1 to 4$\frac{1}{2}$	4 to 9$\frac{5}{8}$
1956–57 ..	14,67,436	....	,93,308	3,66,804	2,90,020	78,20,083	+52,831 —7,602	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 4	6 to 9$\frac{15}{16}$
1957–58 ..	12,77,554	....	6,94,393		6,56,157	79,84,521	57,793	NA.	NA.

MARKETING AND SUPPLY SOCIETIES.

Marketing and Supply Societies.—There are only four marketing societies in this district, out of which two are mango sale societies which export mango parcels to Bombay and earn commissions. They also supply seeds and fertilisers to mango producers. The total number of members of the societies in 1958 was 366, and their total share capital amounted to Rs. 2,05,093 in the same year. Besides these societies some multi-purpose societies in the district also indulge in marketing and supply operations.

Taluka Development Boards.

Taluka Development Boards.—There are in all fourteen Taluka Development Boards in this district, out of which some are practically idle. Number of members of these societies in terms of individuals is 6,392 and in terms of societies 65. A few Taluka Development Boards have undertaken the work of distribution of iron, cement, manures, insecticides and agricultural implements. Now at the instance of the Government all the Taluka Development Boards are to be converted into purchase and sale unions.

FARMING SOCIETIES.

Farming Societies.—There are in all fifteen Farming Societies in this district, out of which nine are better farming societies, three are joint farming societies, two are collective farming societies and one is a tenant farming society. Better farming societies provide seeds and manures to the agriculturists. The Government has decided to convert them into multi-purpose societies.

Joint-farming societies experimented in cultivating lands on their own but a large number of factors have put them out of commission.

Collective farming societies are practically non-working and are on the verge of liquidation.

There is, at present, only one Tenant Farming Society at Hirleshivapur, taluka Malvan with a membership of 85. The Society had utilised about 114 acres of land for its use in 1956-57. The society has planned to construct a bandhara and has received a loan of Rs. 4,880 and a subsidy of Rs. 1,200 from Government towards its cost of construction.

Grow More Food Campaign.—Co-operative Societies in this district have taken active part in the Grow More Food Campaign inaugurated in the district. They have helped the Government in the distribution of improved seeds, chemical fertilisers, etc. In the matter of providing credit to agriculturists the societies advanced loans to the extent of Rs. 12,05,052 for various purposes in 1957.

Fisheries Societies.

Fisheries Societies.—In 1957, only one Co-operative Fisheries Society was registered at Paj, taluka Dapoli, with a membership of ten. Very few societies are providing credit facilities to their members. Most of them are hampered by poverty and incapacity of the members to raise sufficient funds for their business.

CHAPTER 7. — Finance. CONSUMERS, SOCIETIES.

The Consumers' Societies which are twelve in number have become inactive on account of the lifting of control over different commodities. Due to the non-responsive nature of the general public who are economically badly placed, these societies have no prospects, unless they are converted into multi-purpose societies.

The other types are Housing Societies, Insurance Societies, Industrial Societies, etc.

Better-Living Societies.

Better-Living Societies.—There are two Better-Living Societies in the district. They grant scholarships to the students from the interest they collect on the investment of their own funds.

Activities of the Societies in National Extension Service and Community Development Blocks.

In 1956-57, there were in all sixteen Multi-purpose and Agricultural Credit and twelve Grain Societies in Mandangad taluka, which was converted into Community Development Block. The membership of these societies was 2,110, while its share capital was Rs. 20,350.

National Extension Service Blocks.—There were in 1957 five National Extension Service Blocks in the district. They covered all villages in Khed, Dapoli, Ratnagiri and Sangameshwar talukas. The total number of societies of all types in these Blocks was 222, with a membership of 19,177 and a share capital of 3,31,007. Out of these, 145 are Multi-purpose and Agricultural Credit Societies, while 37 are Grain Societies. The rest of the societies include Marketing Societies, Backward Class Co-operative Housing Societies, Taluka Development Boards, Industrial and other types of societies. Each of these categories, however, has a limited number of societies as members.

Schemes under the Second Five-Year Plan.

During the year 1957-58, five large-sized multi-purpose societies were organised by conversion of bigger societies. The Government has sanctioned its own contribution towards share capital to the extent of Rs. 38,000. As most of the villages are scattered and separated from one another by physical barriers, grouping of smaller units into larger ones was not possible. Moreover, contributions coming from the people towards share capital are meagre due to the conditions of extreme poverty under which people are living. On a similar basis eighteen small-sized societies were organised in 1957-58.

A new central bank was also instituted in 1957 for which share capital contribution of Rs. 1,00,000 and a subsidy of Rs. 5,000 towards management cost have already been sanctioned by the Government.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

SCHEMES UNDER SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN.

As agricultural production is barely enough to meet the demands of the district populace, possibilities of further development of Agricultural Marketing Societies do not appear to be very bright. Organisation of Co-operative Farming Societies is also difficult due to the peculiar physical surroundings in the district. At present out of the fifteen farming societies, thirteen are completely in an inactive stage.

In general the attitude of the public towards the Co-operative Movement seems sympathetic and appreciative as could be seen from the increasing interest it has been evincing in the Co-operative Movement. This shows a definite awakening of the masses to the principle of co-operation which augurs well for the future of the movement.

JOINT STOCK BANKS :

JOINT STOCK BANKS.

Development of Banking in the district is of a very recent origin as till 1914, there was not a single banking institution in the district. The first bank to be established at Ratnagiri was the Ratnagiri Urban Co-operative Bank Ltd., established in 1914. In 1958 there were four Banks functioning in the Ratnagiri district at the district head-quarters, viz. :—

(1) State Bank of India,

(2) Bank of Maharashtra,

(3) The Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate Ltd.,

(4) The Bank of Konkan.

All these banks are providing the usual banking facilities to the public including the financing of trade and agriculture and of storage and movement of agricultural produce. Besides these banks there are eight Urban Co-operative Banks and a large number of agricultural credit societies operating in the district and catering to the needs of the agriculturists. They have already been described in the preceding pages.

Following is an account of the Banks functioning at Ratnagiri proper :—

A branch of the State Bank of India, was opened at Ratnagiri on 10th December 1956. The branch conducts the usual banking business. In addition, as an agent of the Reserve Bank of India, it transacts Government business and affords remittance and exchange facilities to local banks and public.

The Bank of Maharashtra opened its branch office at Ratnagiri in 1958.

The Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate, Ltd., has got three branches in the district at—(1) Ratnagiri, (2) Malvan, and (3) Vengurla.

CHAPTER 7.
—
Finance.
JOINT STOCK BANKS.

The Bank of Konkan Ltd., has its head office at Malvan, and five branch offices in the district, at the following places :—

(1) Ratnagiri,
(3) Sawantwadi,
(2) Kudal,
(4) Banda,
(5) Phondaghat,

In 1958, there were, in all, eleven offices of joint-stock banks in the Ratnagiri district. Of these, only one bank, namely, the Bank of Konkan has its registered office in the district, while the rest were branch offices of the banks which had their registered offices outside the district. The names of the banks and their locations are given below :—

Banks.	Locations.
(1) The Bank of Maharashtra.	Ratnagiri.
(2) The Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate, Ltd.	Ratnagiri.
(3) The Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate, Ltd.	Malvan.
(4) The Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate, Ltd.	Vengurla.
(5) The Bank of Konkan Ltd.	Ratnagiri.
(6) The Bank of Konkan Ltd.	Kudal.
(7) The Bank of Konkan Ltd.	Sawantwadi.
(8) The Bank of Konkan Ltd.	Banda.
(9) The Bank of Konkan Ltd.	Phondaghat.

The following tables reveal the financial operations of various joint-stock banks in the Ratnagiri district. Table No. 10 gives us the ownership of deposits of the banks, while in Table No. 11, an analysis of advances of all the scheduled and non-scheduled banks according to security is given.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

Joint Stock Banks.

TABLE No. 10.

Banks in Ratnagiri District—Ownership of Deposits.

Amount Deposited by	Between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 50,000.		Between Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000.		Between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000.		Between Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,000.		Rs. 500 and below.		Total.	
	No. of Accounts	Amount.	No. of Accounts	Amount	No. of Accounts	Amount.	No. of Accounts	Amount.	No. of Accounts	Amount.	No. of Accounts	Amount.
1. Manufacturing Concerns ...	....	....	.....	....	......	.....	.....	....	102	6,800	102	6,800
2. Trading Concerns ...	2	30,700	2	13,100	13	32,000	6	4,200	92	6,400	115	86,400
3. Persons ...	10	130,100	15	108,000	456	847,400	256	239,700	3,358	266,180	4,095	15,91,380
4. Banking Companies ...	....	.....	......	....	....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	....	....
5. Business Concerns ...	5	51,000	......	....	156	220,000	7	4,800	2,718	2,27,300	2,886	508,100
6. Public Institutions and Trusts ..	....	.....	......	....	....	.....	......	.....	.....	....	....	.....
7. Others ...	5	1,12,600	1	5,700	98	109,800	7	12,100	....	....	111	330,200
Total ..	22	324,400	18	126,800	723	12,99,200	276	260,800	6,270	506,680	7,309	25,17,880

CHAPTER 7. Finance. JOINT STOCK BANKS.

Table No. 10 shows that the manufacturing concerns owe quite a small proportion of the total deposits. The situation can be very well explained by the poor development of industries in the district and its economic backwardness. Of all the deposits those on personal account represent the lion's share, while deposits of business concerns stand next in importance as far as their total volume is concerned.

TABLE No. 11.

ANALYSIS OF ADVANCES OF SCHEDULED AND NON-SCHEDULED BANKS ACCORDING TO SECURITY.

	Year ended 1955.		Year ended 1957.	
	Number of Accounts.	Amount Rs.	Number of Accounts.	Amount. Rs.
I. Secured Advances.				
(1) Government and Trustee Securities.	1	100	1	800
(2) Shares and debentures of Joint-Stock Companies etc.	6	23,400	4	1,600
(3) Gold and Silver Bullion, Gold and Silver ornaments.	2,230	9,63,920	3,500	12,26,127
(4) Merchandise:				
(a) Agricultural Commodities.	1	8,700	....	....
(b) Non-agricultural Commodities	9	8,900	16	30,835
(5) Real Estate—				
(a) Agricultural Land.	....	....	....	....
(b) Other properties ..	15	4,32,100	4	4,43,500
(6) Fixed Deposits ..	362	1,15,800	718	2,11,600
(7) Other secured advances	188	1,35,200	271	3,14,400
II. Unsecured Advances ..	173	2,81,841	188	2,95,610
Total of I and II ..	2,985	19,69,961	4,702	25,24,472

Table No. 11 gives us the advances, secured as well unsecured, of these banks during the years 1955 and 1957. It appears that the banks are most willing to make advances against the security of gold and silver bullions and gold and silver ornaments. They have also advanced comparatively larger amounts against the securities of properties other than agricultural land. It may be that very few agriculturists and cultivators have approached these banks for loans. Most of them must have been obtaining credit through the easy system of money-lenders.

It must be noted in this connection that these banks have been established and have started functioning only in recent years. The State Bank as well as the Bank of Maharashtra, have been opened only a couple of years back. That explains the smallness of total volume of business done by these banks. As Ratnagiri is the most commercially undeveloped and economically backward area, the banking business in the district is bound to be smaller than in the other districts. With the growth of industries and communications as well as the banking habits of the people, the banking business will develop profusely and spread widely.

SMALL SAVINGS SCHEMES.

The Small Savings Movement in India is of recent origin. It was started during 1945 as a means of mopping up purchasing power to fight the rising spiral of inflation. The Planning Commission later on recognised Small Savings as the most important source of financing Government expenditure on capital schemes included in the Five-Year Plans. The Government of India has been, therefore, trying to intensify small savings as a mass movement aimed at cultivating a national habit of thrift. To-day, of all the target resources of the Second Five-Year Plan like taxation and open market borrowing, small savings can be considered to be an effective mode of mobilising co-operative sacrifices of the people in a democratic and economically the least painful way. "Small Savings" is thus a mighty adventure of building up a happy and prosperous India.

Trend in Small Savings.

Small Savings Collections are closely related to the general price level. The fall in the general level of prices and the cost of living seem to have fairly contributed towards a rise in the collections during the First Five-Year Plan. While the general index of wholesale prices fell from 434 in 1951-52 to 360 in 1955-56, the net collections rose from about Rs. 14 crores in 1951-52 to Rs. 17 crores in 1955-56 in the areas of the re-organised Bombay State. In Ratnagiri district the approximate net collection during 1956-57 was Rs. 9 lakhs. In the next year, i.e., from April 1957 to February 1958, the net collection was Rs. 5,00,000 and the gross collection was Rs. 58,91,000 while the net target was Rs. 20,00,000. This net target was fixed after taking into consideration the net collections secured in the past, the crop conditions as well as the contributory capacity of the rural areas and the industrial development of this district

CHAPTER 7. — Finance. SMALL SAVINGS. Categories of Small Savings.

The following categories of investments have been classified as small savings investments :—

(1) Post Office Savings Bank Deposits.

(2) Twelve-Year National Plan Savings Certificates issued with effect from 1st June 1957, including past holdings of Twelve-year and Seven-year National Savings Certificates as well as Ten-year National Plan Certificates issued prior to June 1957.

(3) Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates issued with effect from 1st June 1957, including past holdings of Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates issued prior to that date.

(4) Fifteen-Year Annuity Certificates.

(5) Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

Post Office Savings Banks and National Savings Certificates.

The Post Office Savings Banks constitute by far the most important source for the collection of small savings especially from people of small means. The agency of the Post-Office Savings Bank is very much suited to the rural areas where there are very little banking facilities. Moreover, as an agency of the Government, it enjoys complete confidence of the people. Today the Post-Office Savings Banks provide a large net-work of offices spread throughout the country and could be developed without incurring considerable expenditure. Savings Bank activity constitutes one of the numerous functions of the post offices and can, therefore, be carried on economically which is not possible in case of other banking institutions.

The district is served with a considerable number of post offices. In 1957, there were 149 post offices in the district doing savings bank work as well, with the Head office at Ratnagiri. Out of them 48 were sub-offices and 100 were branch offices. The following table gives an account of the savings banks in the district.

Year.	Total No. of Accounts in Post Office Savings Banks.	Total amounts invested.
		Rs.
1954-55	2,647	39,52,043·77
1955-56	3,011	42,23,036·62
1956-57	3,581	47,71,109·39

This table clearly shows that since 1954, the total number of accounts with the Post Office Savings Banks increased along with the total amounts invested in these banks. An increase in the number of Post Office Savings Banks especially in the rural parts of the district, would encourage an expansion in savings in the future.

SMALL SAVINGS.

Post Office Savings Banks and National Savings Certificates.

The post-office savings scheme is one in which even the poorest can participate. A person can open his account with Rs. 2 at any post office which does savings bank work. An account may be opened by an individual himself or by two persons, jointly, payable to (i) both or (ii) either. Interest allowed for this deposit on individual and joint account is two and half per cent. for the first 10,000 rupees and two per cent. on the sum exceeding this amount. The maximum amount an individual can deposit is Rs. 15,000. The same facilities are accorded to non-profit-making institutions and co-operative societies. The Small Savings Campaign thus affords the cheapest facility to every citizen to contribute his humble mite to national development.

The Twelve-Year National Plan Savings Certificates.

A new series of these Twelve-Year National Plan Savings Certificates has been issued by the Government of India with effect from June 1957. The then existing Seven-Year and Twelve-Year National Savings Certificates and Ten-Year National Plan Certificates were discontinued.

The new certificates carry a higher rate of interest yielding on maturity, a return of 5·4 per cent. per annum simple interest and 4·25 per cent. per annum compound interest free of income-tax. They are available at all post offices conducting savings bank business in denominations of Rs. 5, Rs. 10, Rs. 50, Rs. 100, Rs. 500. Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000. Besides this, these new certificates have certain other advantages They have protection from loss or damage ; they are very liquid and they carry a high degree of security.

In Ratnagiri district, the total amount of investment in the Twelve-Year National Savings Certificates was Rs. 7,89,750 in 1954-55, while the amount of withdrawal in the same year was Rs. 3,37,418·05. In the next year, i.e., in 1956-57, the amount invested showed a decline and the amount withdrawn an increase. The corresponding figures of investment and withdrawal for the year were Rs. 7,60,735 and Rs. 4,92,710·17, respectively.

Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates.

Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates bearing an income-tax free interest at four per cent. per annum can be purchased at offices of the Reserve Bank or the State Bank and branches of the State Bank of Hyderabad and the Bank of Mysore. They are available also at all treasuries and sub-treasuries where there are no aforesaid offices of banks.

The Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates are sold in denominations which are multiples of Rs. 50 and investment in the same can be made by cash or cheque. The maximum that can be invested varies according as the investor is an individual or an institution. The interest is paid annually on the completion of each period of twelve calendar months from the date of deposit. This type of investment is suitable particularly for those who want to keep their capital intact and earn regular annual interest for normal recurrent expenditure. The certificates have other facilities too. They are exempt from income-tax, can be hypothecated and can be encashed

CHAPTER 7.
—
Finance.
SMALL SAVINGS.

before the date of maturity, with due allowance for discount. The total amount invested in these certificates in Ratnagiri district during the seven years from 13th August 1951 to 31st March 1958, was Rs. 2,59,600.

Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates.

The following table gives year-wise figures of total subscriptions received for Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates.

TABLE No. 12.

TOTAL SUBSCRIPTIONS RECEIVED FOR TEN-YEAR TREASURY SAVINGS DEPOSIT CERTIFICATES.

Period.		Ten year T.S.D. Certificates.
13th August 1951 to 31st March 1952	..	6,000
1st April 1952 to 31st March 1953	..	27,900
1st April 1953 to 31st March 1954	..	68,700
1st April 1954 to 31st March 1955	..	22,200
1st April 1955 to 31st March 1956	..	78,000
1st April 1956 to 31st March 1957	..	10,000
1st April 1957 to 31st March 1958	..	46,200
Total	..	2,59,000

This table reveals that since August 1951, the total investment in these certificates increased from Rs. 6,000 to Rs. 46,200 in 1957, which shows the increasing popularity of these certificates amongst the people.

Fifteen-Year Annuity Certificates.

This is an ideal scheme for investing accumulated savings in one lump sum which yields a regular monthly income for the investor and his family. The amount invested in these certificates is refunded together with compound interest of approximately 4·25 per cent. per annum by way of monthly payments spread over a period of fifteen years. The amount paid to the investor each month is free of income-tax and super-tax.

The Fifteen-Year Annuity Certificates are available at all places where Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates are sold. They were issued from 2nd January 1958 in multiples of Rs. 3,325 up to Rs. 26,600, securing to the holder a substantial monthly payment. The investor can draw this monthly payment at any treasury or sub-treasury in India or at any of the Public Debt offices at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras and Bangalore. He can also keep the certificates with Public Debt Office for safe custody and get monthly return over it.

The Fifteen-Year Annuity Certificates also received popular support in this district. During the period of two years from 1954 to 1956 the total amount subscribed to these certificates amounted to Rs. 10,500.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

SMALL SAVINGS.

Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

This scheme was started in January 1959. It gives opportunity to small savers to provide for specific purposes such as marriage, higher education, building a house, etc. The scheme is operated through post offices. There are two types of accounts, one of five years maturity value and the other of ten years maturity value. The interest on these deposits at maturity works to about 3·28% and 4·13%, respectively. Any adult or two can open an account but it should not exceed Rs. 12,000 during the entire period. Withdrawals from the accounts are allowed once during the currency of a five-year account and twice in the case of a ten-year account. The amount of withdrawal should not exceed 50% of the total amount of deposits made and the account must have been in operation for more than a year. The amount withdrawn will be deducted from the amount payable under the account, together with simple interest thereon at 6 per cent. per annum.

Small Savings Agent.

In order to intensify the small savings campaign into a mass movement, the Government has started various schemes which are in operation under executive instructions issued by the State Government and the Government of India. The schemes are as follows :-

(1) The General Authorised Agency Scheme open to all citizens including Government servants, co-operative societies, scheduled banks and social welfare institutions.

(2) The internal Agency Scheme.

(3) The Primary Teachers' Agency Scheme.

(4) The Rural Agency Scheme.

(5) The Extra-Departmental Branch Post Master Scheme.

(6) Women's Savings Campaign Agency Scheme.

Besides these schemes individuals are also allowed to canvass the sale of Twelve-Year National Plan Savings Certificates and Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates on a commission basis at the rate of one and half per cent. and half a per cent. respectively.

INSURANCE.

Being an economically backward tract, Ratnagiri made but little progress in the field of insurance till 1956, when insurance business was nationalised. With nationalisation the Life Insurance Corporation of India became the foremost and largest single agency doing life insurance business in India. Life Insurance Corporation was established on 1st September 1956 from which date all India insurances and provident societies and all foreign insurers ceased to carry on life insurance business in India. The general insurance, however, which includes fire, marine, accident and other insurance business is kept open to private enterprise.

Under the new organisational and administrative set-up of the Life Insurance Corporation Ratnagiri district is placed under the territorial jurisdiction of Satara Division of the Western Zone. The total number of agents in the branch on 31st December 1956 was 524. It increased by December, 1957 to 633, but fell again to 398 by the

CHAPTER 7. — Finance. INSURANCE.

end of the next year. The total business proposed and completed was as follows. The total number of proposals were 340 but the actual number of policies issued during the period ranging from 1st September 1957 to 31st December 1958 was 175. Similarly while the sum proposed to be assured was Rs. 565,450, the amount actually assured was Rs. 230,950. In the next year the size of business completed was fairly large. The number of policies in force was 2,591, while the sum assured was Rs. 58,45,700. In 1958, 2,595 policies were issued against 3,006 proposed, and the sum assured was Rs. 54,33,550 against the sum of Rs. 62,90,300 which was proposed.

STATE-AID TO AGRICULTURE.

To prevent an agriculturist from sliding back into his original state of indebtedness, it is necessary to make him economically solvent. One measure to achieve this is to provide him with credit adequate in quantity and beneficient in operation. Government assistance to agriculturists in the form of 'Tagai Loans' satisfies their need for credit.

The system of Tagai Loans dates back to the Pre-British period. The British administrators adopted the already existing system and a number of Tagai Acts were passed between 1871 and 1879. No active assistance, however, was rendered till the passing of the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1881 and the Agriculturists Loans Act of 1884. The former act was meant to provide long-term loans while the latter was to accommodate short-term loans.

Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883.

Loans under this Act are granted to cultivators for works of improvement on land such as construction of wells and tanks, preparation of land for irrigation, drainage, reclamation, enclosures, etc. The Collector, Prant Officer and Mamlatdar are authorised to grant loans up to specified limits bearing an interest of eight and half per cent. i.e., 16 pies per rupee per annum. In particular cases, however, the Government may reduce the rate of interest or charge no interest at all. The loans are given when the authority concerned is satisfied as to the security and the margin of safety involved therein. Generally immovable property is demanded as security against loans to be advanced.

Agriculturists' Loans Act of 1884.

Loans under this Act may be granted to holders of arable lands for purchase of seed, fodder, agricultural stock or implements and to enable them to hire cattle, to rebuild houses destroyed by calamities, to maintain themselves while engaged in work on land or to achieve some such purpose. The rate of interest, the type of security and the terms and conditions of the grant of loan are the same as under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883.

This district is very backward and its poverty is proverbial and there is room for a substantial increase in assistance to the agriculturists. The following tabular statements show the extent of Government assistance under these Acts in Ratnagiri district and bring to notice the actual needs of people for Tagai loans.

TABLE No. 13.

RATNAGIRI DISTRICT—GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE IN THE YEAR 1955-56.

Particulars.	Loan under Land Improvement Act, 1883.	Loans under Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884.	Financial Assistance under Grow More Food Campaign.		Any other loans for the Project Area.	Financial Assistance by other Government Departments.	
			Loans.	Cash Subsidies.		Loans.	Subsidies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Applications pending at the beginning of the year ..	11	35	1	....	....	....	....
2. Amount involved in (1) Rs.	8,480·00	6,845·00	1,500·00	....	....	....	....
3. Number of applications received during the year ..	233	494	360	....	43	32	....
4. Total amount applied for by these applicants. Rs. ..	1,38,448·00	98,545·00	38,949·07	....	36,040·00	5,305·00	....
5. Number of applications sanctioned	111	255	343	....	38	31	....
6. Total amount asked for in (5) above. Rs. ..	30,746·00	51,555·00	27,637·12	....	34,146·00	4,905·00	....
7. Total amount actually sanctioned. Rs.	24,250·00	42,970·00	24,135·68	....	33,600·00	4,15·505	....
8. Total amount actually disbursed during the year. Rs.	22,675·00	42,979·00	24,135·68	....	33,600·00	4,215·00	....
9 Total loans repaid during the year. Rs	30,863·86	15,584·25	6,010·88	....	2,624·87	4,109·25	....
10. Total loans outstanding. Rs.	1,19,206·31	68,642·15	9,513·93	....	31,225·13	25,245·50	....

TABLE No. 14

RATNAGIRI DISTRICT—GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PURPOSES IN THE YEAR 1955-56.

Purposes for which financial assistance is sanctioned.	Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883.	Loans under Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884.	Financial Assistance under Grow More Food Compaign.		Any other loans for the Project Area.	Financial Assistance by other Govenment Departments.	
			Loans.	Cost Subsidies.		Loans.	Cash Subsidies.
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. For Current Farm Expenditure	1,575·00	300·00	790·00	....	....	4,215·00	....
(a) Seed	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
(b) Fodder	....	....	561·44	....	....	....	....
(c) Manure	....	1,266·0	20,635·24	....	....	....	....
(d) Farm Implements	....	2,225·00	2,149·0	....	....	....	....
2. Purchase of Draught Animals	....	32,983·00	....	....	....	....	....
3. Well digging and other irrigation projects	2,750·00	....	....	....	....	....	....
4. Land Improvement	18,425·00	....	....	....	...	....	....
5. Consumption	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
6. Other Purposes	1,500·00	6,205·00	....	....	33,600·00	....	....
Grand Total ..	24,250·00	42,979·00	24,135·68	....	33,600·00	4,215·00	....

TABLE No. 15.

RATNAGIRI DISTRICT—THE TIME LAG BETWEEN THE DATE OF APPLICATION AND THE DATE OF SANCTION IN THE YEAR 1955-56.

Time lag between date of application and date of sanction.	No. of applications.	Amount applied for.	Amount sanctioned.
1	2	3	4
		Rs.nP.	Rs.nP.
On the same day ..	57	12,871·00	6,396·00
Less than one month ..	284	34,178·50	43,663·44
1—2 months ..	392	47,009·00	46,751·24
2—3 " ..	94	31,505·00	24,669·00
3—4 " ..	16	5,200·00	2,000·00
4—5 " ..	26	11,125·62	4,700·00
5—6 " ..	6	4,500·00	1,000·00
6—7 " .	....	....	....
7—8 " ..	1	200·00	....
Over 8 months ..	2	2,400·00	....
Not ascertainable .	....	....	....
Total ..	778	1,48,989·12	1,29,179·68

TABLE No. 16.

RATNAGIRI DISTRICT—THE TIME LAG BETWEEN THE DATE OF SANCTION AND THE DATE OF DISBURSEMENT IN THE YEAR 1955-56.

Time lag between date of sanction and date of disbursements.	No. of applications.	Amount sanctioned.	Amount disbursed.
1	2	3	4
		Rs.nP.	Rs.nP.
On the same day ..	417	72,058.94	73,133.94
Less than one month ..	270	46,732.12	45,082.12
1—2 months ..	68	8,358.62	7,388.62
2—3 months ..	6	1,025.00	1,025.00
3—4 months ..	1	350.00	350.00
4—5 months ..	16	625.00	625.00
5—6 months ..	....	....	....
6—7 months ..	....	....	....
7—8 months ..	....	....	....
Over 8 months ..	....	....	....
Not ascertainable ..	....	....	....
Total ..	778	1,29,179.68	1,27,604.68

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

STATE-AID TO AGRICULTURE.

TABLE No. 17.

RATNAGIRI DISTRICT—THE TIME LAG BETWEEN THE DATE OF SANCTION AND THE DATE OF DISBURSEMENT IN THE YEAR 1955-56.

Duration of Loans.	Number of applications.	Amount.
		Rs.
Less than three months.	..	....
3—6 months	4	251·50
6—9 months	5	1,297·00
9—12 months	309	26,707·56
1—2 years	213	19,104·62
2—3 years	136	46,334·00
3—4 years	73	15,060·00
4—5 years	18	9,930·00
5 years and above	20	10,495·00
Those who have not stated the duration ..	..	....
Total ..	778	1,29,179·68

TABLE No. 18.

RATNAGIRI DISTRICT—REASONS FOR REJECTION OF THE APPLICATIONS FOR TAGAI LOANS IN THE YEAR 1955-56.

Reasons for rejection.	Number of applications.	Amount.
		Rs.
(1) Lack of security or adequate security	187	88,014·38
(2) Purpose of Loan not approved ..	59	19,200·00
(3) Old Dues to Government	12	10,439·00
(4) Miscellaneous	120	51,048·00
Total ..	378	1,68,701·38

STATE-AID TO AGRICULTURE.

From the foregoing tables some of the significant facts about granting of Tagai loans are easily discernible. The financial assistance granted under both the Acts seems to be very inadequate in relation to the needs of the agriculturists in the district as could be seen from the total amount asked for during 1955-56, under Land Improvement Act of 1883, which was Rs. 30,746. The sum sanctioned during the same year was of the order of Rs. 24,250 only. Similarly while the amount asked for under Agriculturists Loan Act of 1884 during 1955-56, was Rs. 51,555, the total amount sanctioned was Rs. 42,976. There is, however, a marked tendency for an expansion in financial assistance to agriculture by the State during the last few years. This can be seen from the total amount of Tagai loans advanced every year after 1951 except in 1954-55, when there was a shrinkage in State assistance.

It is also apparent from Table 15 that the time-lag required for sanction of the majority of loans since the receipt of the applications for them was not inconsiderate. In over eighty per cent. of the cases, the time taken for sanction was less than two months.

The Table No. 18 reveals that out of a total number of 778 applications as many as 187 were rejected for lack of security or adequate security. In case of 59 applications, the purpose for which loan was sought was not approved. Old dues to Government also provided, in a few cases, a basis for rejection. Applications were turned down for a variety of reasons. The State grants loans to agriculturists for specific purposes and many times they fall short of their needs. The agriculturists, therefore, prefer more often to avail themselves of a more elastic and easy system in the institution of money-lenders.

Further, although the time taken to sanction these loans was not long as can be seen from the table and disbursement of loans was not delayed, recovery of loans had to be effected by resorting to strict legal measures.

As regards financial assistance under the Grow-More-Food Campaign, Government is giving liberal assistance to meet the demands of the people. This can be seen from the total amount actually sanctioned under the Grow-More-Food Campaign during 1955-56 vis-a- vis the amount asked for by the people. This assistance was made for current expenditure as well as for purchase of seed, fodder, manure and farm implements. Thus the total amount disbursed during 1955-56 was Rs. 24,135·68. Besides financial assistance under the Grow-More-Food Campaign, Government also granted a loan of Rs. 33,600·00 for the National Extension Service area during the same year.

CHAPTER 7.
—
Finance.

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIES.

Financial Assistance to Industries is given under the Bombay State-aid to Small Scale and Cottage Industries Rules, 1935—as amended up to the 20th January, 1956. Loans are granted for the following purposes :—

(1) Construction of buildings, godowns, warehouses, wells, tanks and other works necessary for industrial operations and for purchase of land.

(2) Purchase and erection of machinery, plant and appliances.

(3) Purchase of raw materials, and

(4) Working Capital,

Since 1948, when a progressive industrial policy was outlined, Government have been taking a very keen interest in the development of small-scale and cottage industries on a co-operative basis. The amendments to the State-aid to Industries Rules of 1935 were effected in 1955 and 1956 with a view to bringing the rules in line with the liberalised policy adopted by the Government of India of giving fillip to the development of cottage and small-scale industries. The Central Government have placed Rs. 10 lakhs at the disposal of the State Government for grant-in-aid to these industries. Some of the important changes introduced by the recent amendments are given below :—

(1) Loans to small-scale industries will be granted by the Department of Industries up to Rs. 75,000 in each case and in exceptional cases up to Rs. 1,00,000. Applications for loans above Rs. 75,000 are considered by the recently constituted State Financial Corporation;

(2) The former rate of 5½ per cent. compound interest is brought down to 5 per cent. compound interest per annum subject to a stipulation that if the instalments are not paid in time a penalty of ½ per cent. shall be levied on all amounts including the principal and interest for the period for which arrears are unpaid. As a result of further liberation of the rules in January 1956, the rate of interest on loans not exceeding Rs. 50,000 was brought down from 5 per cent. to 3 per cent. per annum;

(3) Loans are advanced to the extent of 75 per cent. of the security offered instead of 50 per cent. as provided in the earlier rules. Loans are also to be given against the security of the value of raw materials, goods in process and stock-in-trade, in addition to the hitherto accepted securities of immovable property. Loans are also given against personal security of persons other than borrowers;

(4) The period of repayment of the loans on account of machinery and equipment was extended up to ten years; such period in respect of that part of the loan which is meant for working capital would not ordinarily exceed five to seven years depending on the merit of each case.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIES.

Since the inception of the State-aid to Industries scheme in the year 1935, four industries in the Ratnagiri district were given loans to the extent of Rs. 61,300. Of these Rs. 3,000 were disbursed in 1952 to a manufacturer of wooden toys in Ratnagiri for the development of that industry. The loan was to be repaid in 5 annual instalments with 5½ per cent. compound interest. Similarly loans amounting to Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 5,700 were given to two industries dealing in the transportation of goods by sea for the purchase of raw materials in the years 1949 and 1955, respectively, under the condition that the loans should be repaid in ten annual instalments with a compound interest of 5½ per cent. One industry of Jaigad dealing in the transportation of goods by sea and installation of marine engines in launches was given a loan of Rs. 47,600 in the year 1951, for the purchase of raw materials. This also was at an interest rate of 5½ per cent. but the loan was to be repaid in 48 monthly instalments.

During the period from 1st January, 1955 to 31st December, 1959 only one industry dealing in the transportation of goods by sea was given a loan of Rs. 5,000 with a 3½ per cent. rate of compound interest. The loan was granted for the purpose of the construction of country crafts and was to be repaid in ten annual instalments. Loans were refused in some cases on the ground of inadequate security or for some other reason. For instance applications from two individuals for loans amounting to Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000 respectively, were turned down; the first, because no adequate security was offered against the amount to be loaned and the second, on the ground that the scheme was not economically sound and the returns accruing from it were anticipated to be too low to make any repayment for the amount loaned. Security offered, too, was not very sound.

Loans by Department of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries.

The policy of the State Government in regard to the development of cottage and small-scale industries, has been liberal throughout the post-war period and has found full support in the second five-year plan. To implement this policy the Government has established a separate department known as the Department of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries with a view to fostering the growth of these industries. The Department works out certain schemes for giving financial assistance to cottage and village industries under which it has made considerable progress in meeting the demands for such assistance from a large number of artisans and co-operative societies and giving them benefit of its schemes.

Following is the outline of the schemes prepared by the Department :—

Assistance to Educated Unemployed.

(1) ***Scheme for Grant of Loans and Subsidies to Educated Unemployed persons and bonafide craftsmen for purchase of tools and equipment.***—Under this scheme financial assistance up to Rs. 3,000 can be sanctioned to educated unemployed persons and

CHAPTER 7.
—
Finance.
FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIES.

financial assistance up to Rs. 2,000 to trained and hereditary artisans in the form of loan and subsidy. During 1952-53, the State gave Rs. 400 by way of financial assistance to such persons in the district. This amount of assistance was further raised to Rs. 1,000 in 1953-54 and Rs. 2,500 in 1954-55.

Loans and Subsidies to Backward Class artisans.

(2) *Scheme for Grant of Loans and Subsidies to Backward Class artisans for the purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital.*—This financial assistance is given according to the rules of Government Resolution, Revenue Department (No. 4531/39, dated 25th July 1947). Preference and concession are given to those who are trained in Government peripatetic schools or institutions recognised by Government. During the first three years from the inception of the scheme in this district no assistance of this type was extended to the artisans. In 1954-55, however, the Backward Class artisans received Rs. 1,000 by way of loans from the State. In the following year this amount was more than doubled when Rs. 2,840 were sanctioned to this class by way of loans and Rs. 160 by way of subsidy.

Loans and Subsidies to Co-operative Societies.

(3) *Scheme for Grant of Loans and Subsidies to Co-operative Societies for purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital.*—Under this scheme co-operative societies whose one-third membership consists of bonafide craftsmen can be granted financial assistance up to Rs. 5,000 of which half the amount can be granted in the form of subsidy. Loans are given free of interest to those co-operative societies, the majority of whose members come from backward classes. For other societies interest at 4½% is charged.

Co-operative societies in Ratnagiri district received a loan of Rs. 2,400 from the State in the year 1953-54 for developing the coir industry in the district. In the following year the societies received Rs. 825 as loan and Rs. 275 as subsidy for developing the tanning and leather industry.

Loans to Cottage and Village Industries.

(4) *Scheme for State Aid to Small Scale and Cottage Industries.*—Under this scheme loans can be sanctioned for (*i*) construction work, purchase and erection of machinery, (*ii*) plant and appliances, (*iii*) working capital and (*iv*) purchase of raw materials.

This scheme has been only recently introduced in this district and no financial assistance has been given so far.

Loans and Subsidies to encourage use of new ghanis.

(5) *Scheme for grant of Nutan Ghanis on loan-subsidy basis.*—Under this scheme ghanis are sanctioned to hereditary *telis*, oilmen's co-operative societies and other institutions. The scheme is started to induce oilmen to use improved types of ghanis and thereby increase production. The hereditary *telis* can purchase the ghani at half its cost, if they are convinced of its working and advantages after trial for three months. This cost is to be treated as interest-free loan from Government and

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIES.

It is to be repaid in monthly instalments of rupees five each. The remaining half of the cost is to be treated as subsidy from the Government. *Telis* are also eligible for financial assistance up to Rs. 1,000 for the purchase of raw material and for working capital. Repayment of the loan is spread over a period not exceeding five years and in equal monthly instalments. The 'Nutan Ghanis' are supplied to *telis* and their co-operative societies on loan-*cum*-subsidy basis. Here the amount of subsidy is not more than one-fourth of the total cost or Rs. 75, whichever is less.

To begin with, the State granted Rs. 265 in 1952-53 by way of financial assistance to the various societies of oilmen in this district. In 1954-55, loans upto Rs. 200 were made under the same scheme.

There are other schemes under which the Government sanctions loans and grants-in-aid to individuals and co-operative societies. There are also schemes under which financial assistance against Government guarantee is given to different societies. No assistance under these schemes, however, has been rendered in this district so far.

State-aid to Handloom Industry.

The handloom industry is the major cottage industry in the State next in importance to agriculture and provides employment to a large section of the rural population. It meets a considerable portion of village requirements in regard to clothing. Since 1954 the industry is showing signs of revival and progress, largely in consequence of the liberal and effective measures adopted by the Government of India and the State Government. To this effect the Co-operative Department of the State under its section of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries grants loans for the development of handloom industry. In 1954-55 loans up to Rs. 10,000 were sanctioned for handloom development scheme in Ratnagiri district. In the following year the State again made loans to the extent of Rs. 9,730 under the same scheme for the whole district. There is another scheme under which a co-ordinated and comprehensive programme of development of this industry with a view to modernising its technique and improving productive efficiency of the industry, has been taken up at an all India level and is being financed from the special cess levied by the Government of India on Indian textiles. Under this programme, assistance is given for introduction of improved looms, formation of weavers' co-operative societies and for working capital required by the weavers.

Since the constitution of the All India Handloom Board in 1953 and the creation of a cess fund, there has been rapid progress in the development of the industry. The share of the State in the cess fund for the financial year 1955-56 was fixed at Rs. 38·98 lakhs. During that year a number of schemes were submitted to the All India Handloom Board for scrutiny and sanction for financial assistance. In

CHAPTER 7. — Finance. FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIES.

addition the schemes sanctioned by Government of India up to the end of the financial year 1954-55, continued to be implemented The Government of India sanctioned additional amounts under such schemes whenever necessary.

The programme for the development of the handloom industry which is financed from the special cess was initiated in Ratnagiri district, during the First Plan period and assistance was given to some societies among which the Devang Weavers' Co-operative Society, Kankavli, the Dabhol Weavers' Society, Dabhol and the Mhapral Weavers' Co-operative Society, Mhapral, were the most important. During the Second Five-Year Plan, one more weavers' co-operative society will be established in the district and the other ancillary programme for the development of that industry will be continued.

STATE-AID TO FISHERIES.

The Ratnagiri district has a coast-line of about 250 miles and fishing is one of the major industries of the district, especially in the southern parts, where 'Mackerel' is found in plenty. The district has about 119 fishing villages with a population of 70,000. The average fishing season lasts from August to May, and about 3,600 fishing boats ply along the coast. The total investment in the industry is about Rs. 46 lakhs, and the annual catch of fish in this district averages about 3,500 maunds.

Loans are granted by Government under the State-aid to Industries Rules, 1935, to needy fishermen for mechanisation of fishing equipment and accessories. Loans are also given to fisheries co-operative societies and private undertakings for such development projects as establishment of ice and cold storage plants and purchase of trucks and launches for transport of fish, etc. The loans are recovered in 27 equal instalments spread over a period of three years. The months of June, July and August are excluded while computing the interval between instalments. During the First Plan period, loans amounting to Rs. 1,00,000 were granted to the societies in this district.

The growing importance of fisheries was recognised by the Government as far back as 1945 and a full-fledged Directorate of Fisheries was set up.

Terms and Conditions for Financial Assistance

The Department through various schemes grants loans and subsidies under certain terms and conditions to fishermen and their co-operative societies for various purposes such as purchasing of engines, mechanisation of fishing crafts, purchasing or repairing of fishing equipment such as boats, nets, engines, trucks and ice-plant.

CHAPTER 7.

Finance.

STATE-AID TO FISHERIES.

The principal terms and conditions governing the financial assistance are set on the following basis :—

(1) Tangible security to the extent of 1½ times the loan amount has to be furnished by the loanee. If not, a personal surety solvent to the extent of twice the amount of the loan with a letter of consent from the surety has to be furnished.

(2) The loan exceeding Rs. 1,000 is generally paid in two equal instalments, the first instalment being payable immediately after a mortgage deed is executed and the second instalment after vouchers for the expenditure from the first instalments are produced.

(3) Loan for engine is granted in one instalment.

Fishermen are granted subsidy on the specific condition that they form a group of five to ten fishermen The latter should be members of a local fishermen's co-operative society and do fishing collectively. The amount of subsidy in each case is generally 33 to 50 per cent. The repayment of the loan commences three months after the loan is disbursed. The loan is repayable in equal monthly instalments over a period of five years. The debtors are required to furnish securities either collateral, or equal to 1½ times the loan amount or both personal and collateral each equivalent in value to the loan amounts.

The following table gives the total amount of loans advanced to fishermen and their co-operative societies in Ratnagiri district, for a period from 1952-53 to 1956-57. These amounts include loans granted for purchase of engines.

TABLE No. 19.

Year.		Amount.
		Rs.
1952-53	.. ..	19,750 00
1953-54	.. ..	36,350·00
1954-55	.. ..	20,300·00
1955-56	.. ..	23,000·00
1956-57	.. ..	7,983·84
	Total ..	1,07,383·84

Over and above this, large amounts of subsidies were also granted to fishermen for mechanisation of fishing crafts and for purchase of engines.

CHAPTER 8—TRADE.

CHAPTER 8.

—

Trade.

EXTENT OF EMPLOYMENT.

TRADE AND COMMERCE IS THE SECOND IMPORTANT SOURCE of livelihood for people in Ratnagiri district. According to the 1951 Census report, it provided livelihood either directly or indirectly to 61,204 persons out of the total population of 1,711,964. The table below indicates the number of self-supporting persons engaged in various trades in 1951.

TABLE No. 1.

NUMBER OF SELF-SUPPORTING PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS TRADES IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT (1951).

Sub-Divisions.	Employers.	Employees.	Independent workers.	Total.
Retail trade otherwise unclassified ..	772	1,258	2,410	4,440
Retail trade in food-stuffs (including narcotics).	1,034	1,268	4,516	6,818
Retail trade in fuel (including petrol) .	22	105	204	331
Retail trade in textile and leather goods.	140	181	368	689
Wholesale trade in food-stuffs ..	100	216	285	601
Wholesale trade in commodities other than food-stuffs.	109	153	164	426
Real Estate	4	2	20	26
Insurance	..	21	11	32
Money lending, banking and other financial business.	18	262	69	349
Total ..	2,199	3,466	8,047	13,712

Of the total number of 13,711 self-supporting persons engaged in trade, as many as 8,932 came from rural areas and the rest from urban areas. As many as 12,277 persons out of 13,711, that is, over 80 per cent, were engaged in retail trade.

The statement below, compiled from the census reports, gives the number of persons engaged in trade.

TABLE No. 2.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN TRADE IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT IN 1911, 1921 AND 1931.

Category of Trade.	Number of Persons engaged in		
	1911	1921	1931
1. Textiles	734	310	100
2. Skins and leather	45	31	15
3. Wood	5	29	70
4. Metals	43	22	38
5. Pottery, bricks and tiles	1	108	58
6. Chemical products	72	23	20
7. Hotels and restaurants	856	1,491	1,125
8. Food stuffs	6,887	11,413	6,542
9. Clothing and toilet articles ..	48	61	130
10. Furniture	135	2	61
11. Building material	24	6	14
12. Means of transport	189	330	178
13. Fuel	60	244	77
14. Articles of luxury and arts ..	649	730	667
15. Others	1,062	1,963	1,154
16. Brokerage and commission	170	410	16

Though no smooth increase or decrease in the number of persons engaged is being observed, the increase in 1951 census was quite perceptible. This might be due to the overall increase in the commercial activities in the district since the last two decades. World War II and the consequent rationing of consumers goods caused considerable changes in the pattern of employment in trade and commerce.

Such a table, however, could not be illustrative of the historical picture as the basis of collection of the occupational data in the censuses was not uniform and faultless. Also the statistics of employment alone do not reveal the true nature of factual correlations. Nevertheless, this is calculated to serve as a partial presentation of occupational data.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.

Change in Organisation of Trade since 1881.

The occupational pattern of the district has undergone considerable change since 1881 due to the introduction of modern processes of production and distribution. However, no statistical picture of this change can be attempted, as there has been no uniform system of presenting occupational distribution in the decennial census returns.

COURSE OF TRADE.

Ratnagiri district, situated between the Arabian sea on the west and the Sahyadri mountain on the east, is a long, narrow, coastal strip of about 250 miles and varies in width from 40 to 180 miles. There is no railway in this rugged and broken belt of coast land. Passenger transport and goods transport is, therefore, done either by steamers and country crafts or by motor cars. Water transport ceases to operate between June and August when the district entirely depends on road transport.

On account of its length, the district has come to be divided, for purposes of trade, into three pockets, broadly distinguishable from one another. Chiplun situated on the banks of the river Vashisti and connected through it to the Dabhol port, can be described as the hub of the commercial activity of the northern part of the district. It is also connected, via Kumbharli Ghat, to Karad, a commercial town and a railway station in Satara district.

Ratnagiri, an important port on the western coast serves the central part of the district. It is connected to Kolhapur, via Amba Ghat, by the 'Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Bijapur-Hyderabad' State Highway.

Though no particular town can be described as the nucleus of trade in the southern part of the district, Malvan and Vengurla serve as the important centres of trade in that area.

The district is primarily dependent on Bombay, both for the sale of its products and for the supply of its day-to-day needs; the most important trade route, therefore, is the sea route to Bombay. Next in importance is the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway passing through the whole length of the district from north to south and could, therefore, be justly described as the spine of the district, as all important towns and roads in the district are connected to it. The other roads are :—

(1) Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Bijapur-Hyderabad road (State Highway); it is an important trade route, when Bombay is not accessible due to excessive rain, trade with Kolhapur and beyond is carried on along this road. (2) Malvan-Kasal-Humbrat-Phonda road (M. D. R.[1]) connecting Malvan to Kolhapur city, an alternative trade centre. (3) The road connecting Malvan to Belgaum via Sawantwadi and through the Amboli pass and (4) Vengurla-Belgaum-Hubli-Bellary-Gooty-Nellore road (S. H.[2]) connecting Vengurla to Belgaum, an important trade centre.

[1] Major District Road.

[2] State Highway.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.

IMPORTS.

Ratnagiri, being a deficit district, depends on other areas for supply of food grains and other necessaries of life. The chief articles of import are grocery and grains of all varieties, cloth, sweet oil, medicines and hardware. Sugar and *gul* are imported from Kolhapur, tobacco from Sangli, Jaysingpur and Nipani; groundnut, sweet oil, oil cakes and cotton seeds from Bombay and Kolhapur and chillies from Sangli, and Byadgi (Dharwar district, Mysore State). Pulses are imported from Bombay. Among various kinds of grains imported jowar comes from Ahmadnagar, Baramati, Karad and Bombay; wheat from Nasik, Bombay and Kolhapur; *nachani* from Nasik and polished and husked rice from Kolaba, Bombay and Kolhapur. Cloth is imported from Bombay, Belgaum, Ichalkaranji, Malegaon, Madura (Madras), Salem (Madras) and Sholapur. Medicines are imported from Bombay, Poona and Kolhapur; hardware articles from Bombay and Kolhapur; cement from Porbunder, Okha and Dwarka (Gujarat); electric goods, ammunition and cutlery from Bombay; newspapers and books from Bombay, Poona, and Kolhapur; utensils from Bombay and Kolhapur; optical lenses from Bombay and Delhi; leather goods from Bombay and Kolhapur; bangles from Belgaum and Bombay; petrol and kerosene from Kolhapur; glassware from Bombay and Oglewadi and tea from Bombay, Assam, Darjeeling and Nilgiri.

EXPORTS.

There are quite a few commodities that the district exports, mangoes, cashew-nuts, and betel-nuts being the most important. In addition to these, fish, cured as well as fresh, is also exported. Mango is exported mainly to Bombay, Poona and Kolhapur; betel-nuts to Bombay; cashew-nuts to Bombay and America; cocoanut, fish and chebulic myrobalan (*hirda*) to Bombay. Catechu is also exported in small quantities to Bombay. Salt is exported to the Ghat districts. Mangalore tiles imported from Mangalore are re-exported via Chiplun to Ghat districts.

Mangoes.

Alphonsos known as Ratnagiri *hapus* are very famous for their delicious taste and flavour. At the beginning of the season, commission agents of dealers at Bombay purchase all the fruits that a tree or trees in an orchard may yield during the ensuing season and very often make advances to the mango producers as early as October, so that the producers may not sell the yield to any other person. The agents sort out raw mangoes and dispatch them by sea or by land route in packages or wooden boxes containing 5 to 6½ dozens of fruits to Bombay, Poona and Kolhapur. The Marketing Inspector, Ratnagiri, estimated that about 18,22,500 packages are exported every year. These constitute about 80% of the total produce of the district.

Cashew-nut.

Cashew or *kaju* trees (Anacardium occidentale) grow plentifully in the southern part. Cashew-nuts are sold to cashew-nut roasting factories either directly or through intermediaries. In addition to the local supply, cashew-nuts are also imported from Kenya. After

roasting cashew-nuts, the shell is removed and cashew kernels are exported to Bombay and America. It is estimated that about 2,51,000 lbs. of such kernels are exported to Bombay and America every year.

Betel-nut.

Betel-nut trees (*supari* or *pophali*) grow luxuriously in the northern part of the district, viz. Mandangad, Dapoli and Guhagar talukas. Most of the crop, about 25,000 tons, grown in the district is sent to Bombay either by sea or by road. Local traders or commission agents of the dealers at Bombay purchase unshelled betel-nuts (*asoli supari*), bake them in the sun for about twenty days, remove the shell, grade them to size and export the same to Bombay for attractive prices.

Cocoanut.

Cocoanut trees grow all over the district. The yield is purchased by commission agents who export it to Bombay.

Ratnagiri, Chiplun, Malvan and Vengurla are the important trade centres. The following list shows the commodities handled at the various trade centres in the district :—

Chiplun : Grains, grocery, mangalore tiles, salt, timber and mangoes.

Rajapur : Grains and grocery.

Dapoli : Betel-nuts (*supari*), grains and grocery.

Ratnagiri : Mangoes, grains, grocery and fish.

Malvan : Cashew-nuts, fish, grains and mangoes.

Vengurla : Cashew-nuts, grains, grocery and mangoes.

Next in importance to trade centres are the places where periodical bazars are held. The following list shows the taluka-wise distribution of places where periodical bazars are held :—

Taluka or Peta.	Names of places.
Malvan ..	Trimbak, Madhi, Talgir, Malvan, Mhaswe and Chinder.
Lanje ..	Lanje, Bhambed, Shipcshi and Beni Bk.
Sangameshwar .	Sangameshwar and Phunagus.
Kudal ..	Kudal, Walawal, Nerur K., Nerur, Kadaval, Kasal and Mangaon.
Rajapur ..	Pachal, Talwade and Saundal.
Kankavli ..	Phonda, Kankavli, Kharepatan, Koloshi, Tarde and Sangwe.
Ratnagiri ..	Pali, Kotawada, Harchiri, Kham and Tonde.
Khed ..	Nil.
Guhagar ..	Nil.
Mandangad ..	Mhapral, Panderi and Durgawadi.
Deogad ..	Deogad, Tale bazar, Shirgaon and Mithbao.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.
EXPORTS.

Taluka or Peta.	Names of places.
Vengurla ..	Hodawada, Adeli, Vajrat, Mhapan, Kelus, Khanoli, Ubhadanda, Ansur, Dabholi, Matond, Arawali, Shiroda, Tulas, Redi, Asoli Pal, Parule I, Parule II and Kochara.
Dapoli ..	Nil.
Chiplun ..	Pophali.
Sawantwadi ..	Sawantwadi, Amsoli, Aronda, Aros, Banda and Danoli.

Of these markets, those held at Lanje, Phunagus, Sangameshwar, Walawal, Kadawal, Kasal, Mangaon, Kotawada, Hardin, Deogad, Talebazar, Shirgaon, Mithbao, Hodawada, Shiroda, Parule I, Malvan, Mhase, Chinder and Pophali had each a turnover of a thousand rupees or more on a bazar day.

FAIRS.

Almost all the fairs held in the district are associated with important deities and religious festivals. In the 19th century they were important occasions of commercial activity, although they are now losing their importance.

The following table shows the taluka-wise distribution of fairs held in the district, in 1957.

Taluka or Peta.	Number of fairs held.
Khed	10
Mandangad	7
Dapoli	8
Guhagar	2
Chiplun	6
Sangameshwar	8
Rajapur	5
Ratnagiri	2
Kankavli	Nil
Kudal	52
Lanje	12
Malvan	20
Vengurla	18
Deogad	7
Sawantwadi	118

In 1957, the largest number of fairs (118) were held in Sawantwadi taluka. It was followed by Kudal. The fair held at Kankeshwar in Deogad taluka had the largest turnover estimated at Rs. 8,000.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.

FAIRS.

Fairs of commercial importance were held at Savans in Khed taluka, Mhapral in Mandangad taluka, Pophali in Chiplun taluka, Ganpati Pule and Ratnagiri in Ratnagiri taluka, Digas in Kudal mahal, Vaghaleshwar, Prabhanvalli, Kondhya in Lanje mahal, Dharampur Kulse, Wayangaon, Tondiwadi, Angune wadi and Chinder in Malvan taluka; Khanoli, Ubhadanda, Arvali, Shiroda in Vengurla mahal, Kunkeshwar and Jamsande in Deogad taluka.

These fairs are usually attended by pedlars, itinerant merchants and petty shopkeepers from neighbouring villages. Among them are sweetmeat makers, grocers, tassel-makers, coppersmiths, vendors of parched grains, ready-made cloth dealers, etc. Transactions at these fairs take place on cash basis.

VOLUME OF TRADE.

A full description of volume of trade in the various important municipal towns of the district is not possible for want of official or non-official data. However, a statement of total imports into and exports from municipal limits, based on octroi collection and describing the total volume of trade in these towns is given below :—

TABLE No. 3.

IMPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS.

Commodity group.	1951-52		1952-53.		1953-54	
	Quantity in B. Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in B. Mds	Value in Rs.	Quantity in B. Mds.	Value in Rs.
Cereals ..	97,331	15,67,305	66,054	10,56,874	1,98,639	17,38,223
Sugar ..	9,124	3,28,494	10,075	3,62,705	9,466	3,40,862
Firewood ..	72,042	24,014	43,608	29,076	40,721	27,156
Charcoal ..	2 887	8,662	2,575	7,796	2,934	9,803
Petrol ..	....	89,606	....	84,523	1,79,647	89,820
Cement ..	9,828	49,142	5,976	29,879	6,788	33,940
Building materials.	....	21,376	....	49,370	....	54,228
Cattle-goods ..	12,859	1,54,309	1,33,287	59,949	12,555	1,50,664
Tea ..	1,049	1,76,394	92,895	1,85,790	72,470	1,44,941
Tobacco	1,974	1,57,915	2,185	1,83,512	1,917	1,61,012
Piece-goods ..	....	....	....	...	...	...
Iron, Copper, Brass, etc.	9,886	19,672	7,632	15,504	7,118	28,472
Kerosene	34,647	2,07,281	28,704	1,72,225	39,405	2,30,972

The table shows that among the imports, the group of cereals was the most important. Other groups in order of importance were sugar, tobacco and cattle.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.
VOLUME OF TRADE.

TABLE No. 4.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS.

CHIPLUN MUNICIPALITY.

Commodity group.	Imports.						Exports.					
	1951-52.		1952-53.		1953-54.		1951-52.		1952-53.		1953-54.	
	Quantity in B.Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in B.Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in B.Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in B.Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in B. Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in B. Mds.	Value in Rs.
Cereals ..	....	2,297	....	5,259	....	1,848	....	420	....	504	....	266
Sugar ..	9,906	3,24,206	15,488	5,06,749	21,623	7,07,661	279	9,148	2.684	87,905	3,894	1,27,439
Firewood ..	....	56,132	....	53,281	....	41,779	....	500	....	96	....	64
Charcoal ..	6,172	12,345	12,964	25,929	11,745	23,490	1,086	2,171	1,266	2,532	995	1,991
Petrol ..	1,61,691 gl.	4,85,073	1,96,604 gl.	5,89,812	1,85,708 gl.	5,57,124	....	....	....	....	....	....
Cement ..	....	48,302	....	62,312	....	52,837	....	735	....	288	....	1,107
Building materials.	....	94,739	....	82,644	....	76,812	....	34,725	....	24,503	....	32,222
Cattle-goods ..	31,213	2,49,703	37,770	3,02,162	31,397	2,50,855	6,133	49,062	6,005	48,039	4,959	39,674
Tea ..	....	4,70,575	....	4,81,212	....	3,84,977	....	93,780	....	1,37,889	....	1,04,604
Tobacco ..	...	3,96,465	....	3,34,829	....	3,90,780	....	1,42,736	....	59,752	....	1,80,400
Piece-goods ..	....	7,58,505	....	13,23,972	....	9,70,987	....	3,55,653	....	4,88,281	....	3,05,066
Brass, Copper, Iron, etc.	....	68,144	....	65,511	....	67,948	....	35,401	....	40,727	....	46,881
Kerosene ..	59,642	3,57,852	65,042	3,90,252	59,051	2,94,306	344	2,064	....	....	686	4,116
Miscellaneous articles.	.....	..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.

VOLUME OF TRADE

Piece-goods formed the most important item of imports. The next in importance were sugar, tea, tobacco, kerosene and cement. Among the exports too, piece-goods formed the most important item. It was followed by tobacco, tea and sugar.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.
VOLUME OF TRADE

TABLE No. 5.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS.

Vengurla Municipality.

Commodity Group.	Imports.						Exports.					
	1951-52.		1952-53.		1953-54.		1951-52.		1952-53.		1953-54.	
	Quantity in Bengali Maunds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Bengali Maunds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Bengali Maunds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Bengali Maunds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Bengali Maunds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Bengali Maunds.	Value in Rs.
Cereals ..	1,63,617	35,99,574	63,521	15,07,462	2,38,497	42,92,946	20	430	56	1,232	44,838	8,07,084
Sugar ..	2,697	32,364	7,076	84,912	27,483	3,29,796	2,472	29,664	1,843	22,116	1,129	13,548
Firewood ..	28,182	16,104	25,648	14,656	22,064	15,760	3,010	1,720	1,540	880	2,940	2,088
Charcoal ..	1,145	3,435	1,301	3,903	1,232	3,696	..	..	..	..	..	..
Unrefined Sugar ..	6,097	48,776	15,426	1,23,408	25,059	2,00,470	205	1,640	641	5,128	388	3,104
Cement ..	92,017	4,60,085	30,270	1,51,350	35,729	1,78,645	26,243	1,31,215	25,824	1,29,120	13,925	69,625
Building Materials ..	..	2,02,490	..	2,25,053	..	2,73,940	..	61,908	..	1,17,788	..	92,896
Ghee ..	343	27,440	775	61,025	4,076	3,26,080	104	8,320	221	17,687	68	5,440
Tea ..	1,902	3,19,536	1,307	2,19,576	3,387	5,69,016	646	1,08,528	98	16,564	25	4,211
Tobacco ..	1,969	3,31,792	985	1,65,480	575	96,605	480	80,640	125	21,005	34	5,712
Piece-goods ..	.	2,15,453	.	1,15,849	..	2,00,856	..	1,002	..	18,177	..	3,782
Brass, Copper, Iron etc.	..	3,20,929	..	4,12,866	..	2,85,426	..	89,099	..	1,14,060	..	1,61,097
Kerosene ..	14,849	74,094	28,416	1,70,496	27,960	1,67,760	755	3,774	12,663	75,978	12,659	75,942

The most important group of commodities imported was cereals. It was followed by tea, brass, copper, iron, cement and building materials. Among the exports, cereals topped the list. It was followed by brass, copper, iron, cement, tea and sugar.

TABLE No. 6.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS.

Malvan Municipality.

Commodity Group.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1951-52.	1953-54.	1951-52.	1953-54.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Grain	5,57,056	12,47,290	1,91,943	2,67,715
Refined Sugar	83,997	2,32,972	31,870	26,360
Unrefined Sugar ..	5,19,135	3,45,298	3,312	50,969
Tea	1,46,375	1,99,163	31,351	31,431
Animals for slaughter ..	4,646	8,245	....	205
Oil	4,24,627	8,61,027	72,440	3,62,359
Oilseeds and articles used for fuel, lighting and washing.	3,81,939	4,56,073	8,4980	10,672
Building materials ..	3,63,191	2,06,930	34,829	16,688
Drugs, gums and perfumes ..	2,38,620	2,15,398	29,512	34,418
Tobacco	1,24,036	1,75,635	20,336	64,265
Cloth and piece goods and articles of clothing.	6,30,990	2,36,424	10,036	25,866
Metals and articles of metals ..	2,41,593	5,39,785	13,910	31,639
Cement	39,716	24,163	....	....
Miscellaneous	....	87,666	....	17,770

In Malvan, grains were the most important group of commodities imported, followed by oil, cloth, *gul*, oil-seeds and articles used for fuel, lighting and washing. Among the exports could be mentioned grains, oil, oil-seeds and articles used for fuel, lighting and washing, drugs, gums, perfumes and tea.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.
VOLUME OF TRADE.

TABLE No. 7.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS.

Sawantwadi Municipality.

Commodity Group.	Imports.			Exports.		
	1951-52.	1952-53.	1953-54.	1951-52.	1952-53.	1953-54.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Cereals ..	10,09,515	24,99,376	15,77,749	5,57,159	13,77,558	11,23,740
Sugar ..	1,09,314	5,10,178	5,53,103	53,926	1,95,235	3,54,217
Petrol ..	3,79,266	3,57,291	3,16,158	37,842	34,200	20,262
Cement ..	38,799	30,023	29,530	6,506	8,874	7,188
Building materials	91,300	2,17,097	90,871	66,382	1,52,439.	80,585
Cattle goods ..	4,35,405	4,92,861	5,25,696	2,72,188	3,95,302	4,31,916
Tea ..	4,60,118	4,71,724	3,82,196	2,69,139	2,22,767	1,92,688
Tobacco ..	5,72,740	7,80,919	7,49,329	4,46,845	4,48,857	4,74,015
Piece goods ..	7,08,298	19,19,429	16,04,420	5,23,324	12,72,588	10,05 396
Brass, Copper, Iron etc.	1,66,810	1,21,170	1,37,668	78,278	1,14,796	64,923
Kerosene ..	1,20,504	1,53,144	2,11,314	32,448	68,712	1,11,114
Miscellaneous ..	45,10,502	40,28,726	44,32,845	32,64,191	29,83,147	25,51,268

In Sawantwadi, the group of cereals led the various groups of imported commodities. Other articles were piece-goods, tobacco, cattle and tea.

TABLE No. 8.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS.

Ratnagiri Borough Municipality.

Commodity group.		1937-38.		1946-47.		1952-53.		1953-54.		1954-55.	
		Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.	Quantity in Mds.	Value in Rs.
Cereals and Pulses	Imports	62,689	3,87,584	1,16,476	16,30,656	1,60,992	28,97,856	1,24,674	23,68,800	75,742	15,14,832
	Exports	7,779	58,112	....	....	24,826	4,46,380	17,705	3,36,384	14,472	2,89,440
Sugar	Imports	9,664	86,976	8,037	1,32,608	15,063	4,82,016	5,774	1,96,320	7,156	2,50,464
	Exports	1,411	13,760	3,056	50,432	1,200	38,400	1,019	34,656	1,234	43,200
Cement	Imports	....	75,712	....	9,344	5,862	21,984	19,900	74,784	19,288	72,336
	Expotrs	....	1,568	....	....	960	3,600	4,464	16,740	4,200	15,840
Building materials	Imports	....	58,620	....	1,19,040	....	3,53,280	....	3,86,448	....	4,81,344
	Exports	....	4,352	....	....	....	64,320	....	91,440	....	1,25,234
Tea*	Imports	....	1,13,408	....	1,24,864	1,225	2,51,184	1,209	2,00,784	1,075	2,02,800
	Exports	....	1,329	....	1,1200	188	38,400	110	18,000	105	19,680
Tobacco	Imports	3,323	37,952	....	2,13,120	6,950	5,20,944	3,400	2,55,072	3,563	2,67,264
	Exports	90	960	....	20,800	656	49,200	646	48,436	066	72,432
Piece goods	Imports	....	93,668	....	9,43,040	....	5,67,360	....	4,00,800	....	4,19,760
	Exports	....	....	....	2,17,600	....	35,040	....	14,064	....	33,120
Brass, Copper, Iron, etc.	Imports	....	71,424	....	38,848	....	10,25,856	....	5,58,432	....	5,28,768
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	12,672	....	23,520	....	19,200
Miscellaneous	Imports	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	4,90,896	....	61,32,200
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	18,633	....	31,456

* Figures of quantity in pounds.

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.

VOLUME OF TRADE.

Of the various imports, the group of cereals led the commodities such as brass, copper, iron, piece goods and building material. Among the exports, cereals topped the list followed by building materials and tobacco. Methods of levying octroi duty are not uniform in all the municipalities.

In some cases, no figures of quantity exported from municipal towns are obtainable, while in others, either the value or the quantity of imports is available.

RETAIL TRADE.

A retail trader deals directly with the consumer and as such can be described as a link between wholesale traders on the one hand and consumers on the other. Retail shops do flourishing business in almost all towns of the district by catering to the needs of their localities. Stocks on hand are usually limited and are continuously replaced by the retailer, who keeps running accounts with wholesale traders from his town and, in a few cases, with wholesale traders outside the district. Retail sales are made usually on cash basis but credit for a month or two is also granted sometimes.

The Bombay Shops and Establishment Act (LXXIX) of 1948 which enforces compulsory registration of all shops and establishments located within the municipal limits has been applied to all the municipal towns in the district except Rajapur. The administration of the Act is entrusted to municipal authorities. The following statement shows the number of shops registered and employment therein :—

TABLE No. 9

NUMBER OF SHOPS AND EMPLOYMENT THEREIN IN THE MUNICIPAL TOWNS OF RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Serial No.	Categories.	Chiplun.		Malvan.		Sawantwadi.		Vengurla.		Khed.		Ratnagiri.	
		Number of shops.	Persons employed.	Number of shops.	Persons employed.	Number of shops.	Persons employed.	Number of shops.	Persons employed.	Number of shops.	Persons employed.	Number of shops.	Persons-employed.
1	Grocery	246	377	176	381	98	258	116	193	69	153	85	220
2	Fruits and Vegetables ..	6	11	2	2	2	2	....	....	4	9	16	20
3	Sweets and eatables ..	4	4	4	4	....	....	5	5	....	....	4	12
4	Mutton, beef, eggs, etc. ..	9	13	1	2	2	6	....	....	5	10	....	....
5	Pan, bidi, cigarettes ..	73	97	5	65	36	86	38	38	26	34	55	56
6	Tobacco and snuff ..	43	57	33	5	5	11	16	19	12	12	8	20
7	Medicine	3	5	4	8	5	16	6	8	3	5	10	13
8	Stationery, cutlery, bangles & provision	44	93	21	33	20	53	30	30	12	12	17	35
9	Leather goods and footwear ..	1	22	13	18	9	20	14	14	4	5	8	14
10	Cycle accessories ..	5	16	7	11	1	2	5	5	2	5	10	20
11	Gramophone, radio and electric goods.	3	5	3	3	2	2	2	4	....	....	8	13
12	Umbrellas and trunks ..	9	25	....	....	....	....	2	2	....	....	22	40
13	Motor and motor cycles, sales and repairs	2	3	....	....	6	13	....	....	....	....	1	4
14	Cloth, hosiery	13	34	12	30	21	66	14	27	17	31	15	35
15	Ready-made clothes ..	4	7	....	....	3	6	1	1	....	....	4	10
16	Hardware . .	6	8	6	13	....	....	2	3	2	3	5	9
17	Building materials ..	3	10	2	3	1	9	2	5	4	4	9	14
18	Timber . .	3	5	2	2	....	....	2	1	3	6	5	16
19	Glass mirrors, glassware ..	5	11	2	2	2	6	2	2	....	....	8	18
20	Agricultural requisites .	5	5	2	3	....	....	5	6	....	....	....	....
21	Booksellers and publishers ..	4	4	3	6	....	....	5	18	3	5	10	35
22	Stationery and newspapers .	1	2	3	3	2	4	2	2	7	10	7	12
23	Petrol ..	1	7	1	2	3	6	1	1	1	2	3	25

CHAPTER 8.

Trade.
RETAIL TRADE.

Chiplun.

In 1957, Chiplun had the highest number of retail shops employing 1,291 men, 35 women and 75 children. The ward-wise distribution of these shops showed a marked concentration in ward number VII with as many as 666 retail shops or about 74·9 per cent. of the total shops in the town. Ward No. IV, however, had only 3 shops.

Of the total number of shops, grocery group accounted for the highest with 246 shops. This group was followed by 'pan, bidi and cigarettes' with 73 shops; 'medicine' with 44 shops, 'tobacco and snuff' with 43 shops and 'cloth and hosiery' with 13 shops.

Shops coming under the 'grocery' group employed the maximum number of persons. This group was followed by 'pan, bidi and cigarettes' and then by 'stationery, cutlery, bangles and provision'. The peculiarity of the 'grocery' group was that it provided employment to the highest number of women and children.

Malvan.

Malvan had 537 retail shops employing 881 men, 45 women and 25 children. About 85 per cent. of these shops were located in wards No. I II and IV. Ward No. IV had the highest number of shops, while ward No. III had the lowest number of them.

The highest number of shops belonged to the 'grocery' group which accounted for 176 shops or about 32·8 per cent. of the total number of shops in the town. This group was followed by 'pan, bidi and cigarettes' with 38 shops. 'Stationery, cutlery, bangles and provisions' accounted for 44 shops.

The grocery group employed the maximum number of persons or 66 per cent. of the total number of persons employed in retail trade in the town. This was followed by pan, bidi and cigarette shops employing 65 persons and by fuel shops employing 38 persons. The grocery shops employed the highest number of women and children.

Sawantwadi.

There were 482 retail shops in Sawantwadi, employing 1,098 men, 42 women and 17 children. The ward-wise distribution of retail shops in this town showed a marked clustering in ward No. VII with 360 shops or nearly 74·7 per cent. of the total number of shops in the town. Next came ward No. VI with 65 shops. Ward No. I had only two shops.

Largest group was the 'grocery' accounting for 98 shops. This was followed by 'pan, bidi and cigarette' with 38 shops, by 'cloth and hosiery' with 21 shops and by 'stationery, cutlery, bangles and provisions' with 20 shops.

The 'grocery' group employed the highest number of persons or about 22·3 per cent. of the total number of persons employed in retail trade in the town. This was followed by pan, bidi and cigarette shops employing 86 persons, by cloth and hosiery shops employing 66 persons and by medicine shops employing 56 persons. The employment of women was the highest in shops selling milk and milk products. The maximum number of children was employed in grocery shops.

CHAPTER 8.
Trade.
RETAIL TRADE.
Vengurla.

Vengurla had 345 shops employing 475 men and one woman. The ward-wise distribution of these shops showed that 65·8 per cent. thereof were located in ward No. III followed by ward No. V. Ward No. 1 had only six shops.

More than 33 per cent. of the shops belonged to the 'grocery' group. This group was followed by 'pan, bidi, and cigarettes' and then by stationery, cutlery and provision'.

The 'grocery' group employed the maximum number of persons. Others in order of precedence were 'pan, bidi, cigarettes, etc.' employing 38 persons and 'stationery and provisions' employing 30 persons.

Khed.

Of the six towns where the Shops and Establishments Act has been applied, Khed had the minimum number of shops. These shops were fairly distributed over the town, ward No. III having the highest share with 32·2 per cent. in the total shops in the town. It was followed by ward No. V and then by wards No. II and VI. Ward No. VI had only eight shops.

The 'grocery' group had the highest number of shops, being 22·6 per cent. of the total thereof. Others in order of precedence were pan, bidi and cigarette shops, cloth and hosiery shops, followed by tobacco and snuff, stationery, cutlery, bangles and provisions, etc.

General Description of Shops.
Grocers.

Among the retail shops, the 'grocery' group had the largest number of shops and biggest turnover and employment. They also formed the most widely dispersed group in all municipal towns. Of the various articles sold in these shops, cereals, spices, condiments and tea were the important ones. The size of these shops varied from petty shops with stocks worth Rs. 500 to those with stocks worth Rs. 75,000. The shop-keepers at times were both wholesale-*cum*-retail traders transacting with wholesale traders at Bombay, Kolhapur, Belgaum, Sangli and Nipani. Credit facilities, which were usually granted, varied from centre to centre, the period of credit ranging from 15 to 60 days. Small traders have usually running accounts with big traders with the common understanding that accounts should be cleared at the end of every year, that is, before Divali festival.

The period between June and September was reported as a dull period, while April and May were described as months of brisk activity.

Cloth and Hosiery Shops.

Cloth and hosiery shops come next. Though their total number in a town is small, their annual turnover is quite large. Mostly, these shops are located in the commercially important parts of the town. They sell cotton textiles such as shirtings, coatings, dhoties, saris and hosiery. Some of them also sell silk and woollen cloth. Quite a few stock umbrellas. The stock-in-trade ranges from Rs. 600 to Rs. 40,000. Petty shop-keepers purchase their requirements from Kolhapur, whereas big shop-keepers purchase their stock-in-trade at Bombay directly from mills or from their authorised agents.

CHAPTER 8. — Trade.

The period between June and September was reported as dull, while April and May were described as months of brisk activity.

RETAIL TRADE. General Description of Shops. Stationery, Cutlery and Provisions.

Next in the order are stationery shops. They sometimes trade in provisions and cutlery articles also. These shops are located in almost all wards of the town. Smaller shops have a stock of about Rs. 1,500 and big ones that of about Rs. 10,000. Shop-keepers purchase mostly from Bombay and enjoy credit for about two months. Business activity was reported to be dull from May to July and brisk from September to April.

Pan, Bidi, Cigarette and Tobacco.

Like grocery shops, these shops frequent almost all parts of the town. They stock betel-leaves, *pan* bidis, cigarettes, and tobacco for chewing as well as for smoking. Quite a large proportion of them stock washing soap, snuff, and other sundry articles of day-to-day use and of a durable nature. Most of the shops are either of a medium or of a small size. Smaller shops keep a stock of about Rs. 20, and big ones that of Rs. 600. Big traders purchase cigarettes and snuff at Bombay; tobacco at Sangli or Nipani, and as a rule, purchase them against cash payment. Petty shop-keepers rely mostly on local purchases and enjoy a credit for fifteen days. The business is normal throughout the year.

Shops under this group sell medicines of foreign as well as of indigenous preparations. The stock-in-trade of a shop is about Rs. 20,000. Foreign medicines are purchased at Bombay. Indian medicines manufactured within the State are purchased directly from factories and, those manufactured elsewhere from Bombay. Purchases are on cash basis. September and October are reported as dull and June and July as months of brisk activity.

Leather goods.

Leather goods shops are mostly shops making and selling a local variety of footwear known as *konkani chappal* or *vahan*, as per the orders of customers. They rarely make luxury articles such as suitcases, purses, hand-bags, etc. Their stock-in-trade varies from Rs. 150 to Rs. 500. Leather required for soles is locally purchased and that for the upper part is purchased at Bombay and Belgaum on cash payment. During monsoon the turnover is considerably low. September and October are reported as months of brisk business.

Cycle Shops.

The number of cycle shops is negligible which could be accounted for by the hilly nature of the district. These shops repair cycles, keep them for hire and sell spare parts. Cycles are hired on hourly, daily and monthly basis. Some of them sell new cycles also. New cycles and spare parts are obtained from Bombay. Value of stock (cycles, spare parts) varies from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 3,000. Business is reported to be slack during monsoon. It is, however, normal for the rest of the period.

These shop-keepers sell mainly copper, brass and aluminium utensils. However, recently the proportion of stainless-steel utensils is increasing. The value of stock-in-trade ranges from Rs. 5,000 to

Rs. 12,000. Aluminium and stainless-steel utensils are purchased at Bombay, brass-ware at Poona and copper-ware at Kolhapur. Credit facilities are not available in Bombay. Poona as well as Kolhapur dealers grant credit for about three months. Some of the dealers in this district keep running accounts with dealers at Poona and Kolhapur. The period between June and September is reported to be dull whereas business is brisk during April and May.

Hardware and Building Material.

Shops coming under this group sell articles such as galvanised iron sheets, corrugated as well as plain, iron bars, sheets, beams, screws, nails, timber, cement, paints, sanitary fittings, etc. Most of their requirements are obtained from Bombay. At times orders are also placed with dealers at Kolhapur. Cement is imported from Porbunder and Okha. The highest sales are effected in April and May, while they decline with the onset of monsoon.

The following table gives the number of shops of the various groups of commodities in the rural areas of the various talukas :—

TABLE No. 10.

Table showing taluka-wise distribution of Retail shops in the rural areas of Ratnagiri.

Name of Taluka or Peta.	No. of villages.	Types of shops.				Total.
		Grocery.	Cloth.	Hotels.	Miscellaneous.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chiplun	131	217	..	59	23	299
Dapoli	151	283	35	64	27	409
Deogad	64	227	15	154	46	442
Guhagar	78	159	7	59	37	262
Kankavli	67	190	16	49	36	291
Khed	146	292	26	115	19	452
Kudal	75	156	4	192	5	357
Lanje	84	133	6	37	3	179
Malvan	57	122	1	154	6	283
Mandangad	91	104	1	..	2	107
Rajapur	144	289	10	82	113	494
Ratnagiri	121	382	..	73	58	513
Sangameshwar	169	217	30	65	57	369
Sawantwadi	120	341	37	172	17	567
Vengurla	17	280	16	309	49	654
Total ..	1,515	3,392	204	1,584	498	5,078

CHAPTER 6.

Trade.

SHOPS REGISTERED UNDER SALES TAX ACT.

The following statement gives volume of business done by the big shopkeepers :

TABLE No. 11.

NUMBER AND GROSS TURNOVER OF DEALERS REGISTERED UNDER THE BOMBAY SALES TAX ACT.

Rural areas.	Foodstuffs.		Clothing and other consumers goods.		Building Material.		Transport vehicles and goods.		Machinery and Capital Goods.		Fuel and Power.		Miscellaneous.		Total.	
	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.
Chiplun ..	..	....	15	26,95,000	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	15	26,95,000
Dapoli ..	2	21,000	68	33,96,000	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	70	34,17,000
Deogad ..	26	40,87,621	..	....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	28	40,87,621
Guhagar ..	..	....	27	33,08,000	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27	33,08,000
Kankavli ..	33	41,94,212	5	1,36,620	1	2,409	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39	43,33,241
Khed ..	..	....	27	55,17,000	1	53,000	..	..	..	..	1	27,000	..	..	29	55,97,000
Kudal ..	..	....	..	....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	....
Lanje ..	13	9,70,796	..	....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13	9,70,796
Malvan ..	16	7,60,185	..	....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16	7,60,185
Mandangad ..	..	....	..	....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	....
Rajapur ..	33	62,22,131	5	5,57,773	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38	67,79,904
Ratnagiri ..	42	24,72,082	..	....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	42	24,72,082
Sangameshwar ..	57	75,01,681	7	4,41,565	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	64	79,43,246
Sawantwadi ..	62	43,09,843	19	13,67,805	..	..	2	1,10,269	1	3,233	..	..	..	..	84	57,91,150
Vengurla ..	21	13,92,345	1	601	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	1,56,105	25	15,49,051
Total ..	307	3,19,31,896	174	1,74,20,364	2	55,409	2	1,10,269	1	3,233	1	27,000	3	1,56,105	490	4,97,04,276

TABLE No. 12.

NUMBER AND TURNOVER OF DEALERS REGISTERED UNDER THE BOMBAY SALES TAX ACT (CHIPLUN, RATNAGIRI, MALVAN AND VENGURLA TOWNS).

Urban areas	Foodstuffs.		Clothing and other consumers goods.		Building material.		Transport vehicles and goods.		Fuel and Power.		Industrial Commodities.		Miscellaneous		Total.	
	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.
Chiplun ..	6	1,39,000	68	33,03,000	1	26,000	..	....	1	17,000	..	....	7	2,84,000	83	37,69,000
Ratnagiri ..	69	1,06,54,344	19	16,62,143	2	5,62,706	2	4,03,611	..	....	.	....	4	3,85,717	96	1,38,68,521
Malvan ..	25	34,32,139	11	13,61,598	..	.....	2	2,43,513	..	....	2	44,698	1	10,755	41	50,92,703
Vengurla ..	27	29,94,639	3	85,486	1	26,150	3	3,81,158	..	....	..	....	..	.....	34	34,81,433
Total ..	127	1,74,20,122	101	64,12,227	4	6,08,856	7	10,28,282	1	17,000	2	44,698	12	6,80,472	254	2,62,11,657

CHAPTER 8.
—
Trade.
SHOPS REGISTERED UNDER SALES TAX ACT.

Since the turnover of most of the retail shops in the district does not reach the minimum prescribed for registration under the Sales Tax Act (Rs. 10,000 in the case of importers and manufacturers and Rs. 30,000 in the case of other dealers), they fall, outside the scope of the statement.

As per available data, there are 490 dealers in rural areas registered under the Bombay Sales Tax Act. In the urban areas, this number is 254. The gross turnover of the registered dealers in rural and urban areas was found to be Rs. 4,97,04,276 and Rs. 2,62,11,657 respectively in 1958. The largest number of dealers was in the 'foodstuffs' group, followed by 'clothing'. The largest number of registered dealers was in the Sawantwadi taluka.

PEDLARS.

Next in importance to religious fairs are the pedlars who go hawking merchandise from village to village. This class of merchants in the trade organisation of the district has certainly a place even to-day, but their system of trade has undergone considerable changes in recent years. The growing importance of weekly bazars and fairs does not give scope to pedlars going from village to village, because villagers now show a preference for the periodical markets. They obtain their necessities either from village shops or from weekly bazars held in a village or nearabout. This, however, does not mean that pedlars have altogether disappeared from rural areas. They exist in most taluka-headquarters of the district.

Pedlars in this district usually carry goods on their own person, a few have hand-carts with four wheels, while some use bicycles,. The goods and commodities sold by them include *bhel*, *chana*, fruits and vegetables, bakery products, pins, needles, bangles, sweetmeats, footwears, toys, etc.

Municipalities do not generally issue licences free of charge to pedlars. The latter obtain their stock-in-trade from neighbouring towns and adjoining villages. Their business is dull during monsoon and brisk during winter and summer.

COASTAL TRADE.

A major quantum of the total trade of Ratnagiri district is represented by the coastal trade where the ports naturally play a predominant part. Of the goods imported, the important ones are foodgrains, ground-nut oil, kerosene, cloth, ready-made clothes. leather goods, stationery, cutlery, crockery, watches, utensils, iron and steel goods, opticals, medicines, etc. Among the exports are mango, myrobalan, shewriwood, teakwood, cashew, betelnut, dry fish, etc.

The accompanying table gives statistics of imports into and exports from the ports of the district.—

TABLE No. 13.

STATISTICS OF IMPORTS INTO THE PORTS OF RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1953-57.

Name of the port.	1952–53		1953–54		1954–55		1955–56		1956–57	
	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Aora	7,618	12,58,035	1,43,131	1,79,613	39,767	2,13,308	67,420	2,07,363	70,746	1,84,024
Bryoa	N. A.	N. A.	328	1,02,418	611	5,478	768	2,23,658	247	42,671
Dabhol	N. A.	N. A.	25,006	67,46,403	24,448	66,87,386	30,545	82,77,304	27,048	63,27,892
Deogad	6,989	26,31,240	5,908	22,63,740	2,722	7,88,145	5,885	20,98,140	4,964	18,17,275
Harnai	....	....	4,19,193	32,63,302	4,66,582	92,90,283	4,68,343	94,69,019	6,59,285	97,11,002
Jaigad	7,939	20,00,252	8,637	12,21,783	7,272	7,36,678	10,374	18,99,539	6,906	13,24,561
Jaitapur	6,663	11,56,125	14,236	15,32,226	4,137	14,21,484	3,882	11,87,269	3,015	7,84,238
Malvan	....	1,14,81,074	2,87,677	58,20,096	3,30,186	32,91,367	25,488	21,86,462	24,24,998	27,38,795
Nivati	8	800	7	700	12	1,200	5	500	N. A.	N. A.
Purnagad ..	890	2,33,015	641	1,37,107	909	2,20,323	1,323	4,00,689	1,286	3,94,735
Ratnagiri ..	30,015	41,35,241	25,098	43,25,484	39,996	45,79,613	19,555	18,87,950	18,204	31,90,805
Vijayadurga ..	2,485	49,100	4,035	2,55,140	2,852	2,08,590	3,245	1,70,950	2,551	1,77,500
Vengurla ..	22,531	24,07,957	10,846	17,79,368	6,017	23,88,688	5,940	34,88,862	8,983	38,85,790
Varoda	1,099	4,86,290	4,011	1,02,903	1,047	3,19,933	992	16,73,017	1,119	3,67,239

TABLE No. 13 (contd.)

STATISTICS OF EXPORTS FROM THE PORTS OF RATNAGIRI DISTRICT, 1953-57.

Name of the port.	1952-53.		1953-54.		1954-55.		1955-56.		1956-57.	
	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Achra	1,615	48,030	710	35,140	1,323	35,390	1,390	55,659	663	28,820
Borya	N.A.	N.A.	289	28,000	270	23,080	142	26,800	172	33,243
Dabhol	N.A.	N.A.	904	3,25,495	1,591	2,53,142	1,169	3,37,851	1,520	2,90,831
Deogad	1,070	3,81,975	1,280	4,92,510	2,040	7,96,270	1,363	5,95,210	1,306	5,04,250
Harnai	N.A.	N.A.	1,491	4,95,910	769	4,27,810	1,144	1,46,850	1,152	5,11,120
Jaigad	1,559	1,44,501	908	1,04,976	1,239	96,110	1,000	89,717	1,071	1,03,251
Jaitapur	479	1,77,932	624	1,91,800	442	1,62,125	629	1,79,596	774	2,29,811
Malvan	4,893	3,78,860	2,624	3,28,837	1,356	2,12,614	2,658	2,18,218	4,126	24,17,986
Nivati	7	4,000	3	3,000	8	8,000	5	5,000	N.A.	N.A.
Purnagad ..	1,371	3,65,040	1,904	5,19,680	1,982	4,97,120	1,054	3,48,480	1,854	5,25,280
Ratnagiri ..	5,160	22,31,168	6,835	28,76,592	6,719	48,63,859	4,437	16,43,567	2,540	8,47,165
Varoda	134	1,55,895	506	39,463	117	24,654	347	54,742	1,263	9,03,335
Vijayadurga ..	8,599	10,13,792	8,842	19,13,830	7,698	14,53,506	9,110	24,65,082	9,867	28,65,957
Vengurla ..	4,153	11,72,725	3,231	12,93,957	4,426	15,61,245	26,292	31,02,870	56,873	60,64,588
Total ..	29,040	60,73,918	30,351	86,49,190	29,980	1,04,14,925	50,740	92,69,642	83,181	1,53,25,589

CHAPTER 9.—TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

INTRODUCTION.

The condition of transport and communications was far from satisfactory in the district during 19th century, when a few fair weather earthen tracks provided the only available means of communication. Not only the attitude of the Government was step-motherly but any serious attempts on the part of Government to improve the system of transport were thwarted by the typical topography of the district landscape.

Following is a vivid account of the conditions of roads, then existing, taken from the old Gazetteer of Ratnagiri district (1880) :—

"At the beginning of British rule (1818-20) carriage was almost entirely by water ...... In rugged parts near the coast private charity had in places hewn rough flights of red stone steps; but they were much damaged and out of repair. In the Parashram pass between Chiplun and Dabhol, there had once been a good made road, paved where the ascent required it. But the pavement was (1824) in so bad repair, that cattle chose a winding pathway to the right ...... There were no wheeled carriages, no horses, no camels, and few pack-bullocks. All field and other produce was carried to market on men's heads, and during the first years of British rule, the people suffered much from being forced to carry the baggage of military and other travellers."

"Parts were dangerous to man and beast. Laden animals were jammed between rocks, forced to slide down steep slopes of sheet rock, and, footsore, to pick their way among thickly strewn rolling stones. Carts were unknown, and between many villages and their market towns were not even bullock paths."

The old Gazetteer also mentions that in 1864 the whole length of the district roads was 171 miles.

With all the development that has taken place in other parts of the State in respect of transport and communications, the district today is served only by roads and a few ports. It is not touched by any National Highway, while many of the State Highways are subject to

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

INTRODUCTION.

interruptions of traffic during the monsoon. The proposed Diva-Dasgaon railway line is also not calculated to improve the state of transport, as Dasgaon is far away from the heart of Ratnagiri district. The existing ports, described in a separate section, are also not so convenient for commercial purposes. Most of them are not served with wharfage facilities, goods sheds and amenities to the travelling public. Sandy bars and shallow waters render it very difficult for steamers to land near the shore. Some of the ports, exposed as they are to the violent south-west winds, are not safe for anchorage of vessels. Apart from such difficulties, water transport goes completely out of use in the monsoon and the transport connection between many a port and town is cut. The following statement compiled from the census reports gives the number of persons engaged in transport and communications :—

TABLE No. 1.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT IN 1911, 1921, 1931 AND 1951.

Category	Number of persons engaged in			
	1911	1921	1931	1951
Air transport ..	....	....	....	4
Railway transport ..	263	337	166	244
Road transport ..	1,803	1,695	533	1,971
Water transport ..	5,217	5,458	5,437	4,622
Posts and Telegraphs ..	587	589	517	827
Total ..	7,870	8,079	6,65	7,678

The statement reveals that water transport employed the largest number since 1911. This was so even at the time of publication of the old Ratnagiri District Gazetteer. Ratnagiri is a coastal district not served by railways or air transport. Water transport served the most important link between this district and Bombay. All the persons shown to be employed in railways and air transport were serving outside this district. All the persons engaged in air and railway transport and posts and telegraphs were employees, while a few others engaged in water and road transport were employers. A majority of the persons in water transport were *Kolis*.

The table reveals that with all the socio-economic developments there have not been perceptible improvements in the state of transport and communications. As regards postal facilities, there had been an increase in the persons engaged and the number of post offices. The slow progress in transport and communications might be related to the peculiar topography of the district, low

volume of trade and the lack of economic opportunities. These factors together rendered the cost of providing transport facilities not sufficiently compensating.

CHAPTER 9

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

Classification.

The following is an account of the State Highways and Major District Roads in Ratnagiri district. There is not a single National Highway in the district.

Roads in Ratnagiri district, as in other districts, are classified, according to their importance, into four categories :—

(*i*) National Highways, (*ii*) State Highways, (*iii*) Major District Roads, and (*iv*) Other District Roads.

National Highways have been defined as "main highways serving predominantly national, as distinct from State, purposes, running through the length and breadth of India, which together form a system connecting (by routes as direct as practicable) major ports, foreign highways, Capitals of States, and including highways required for strategic movements for the defence of India."

State Highways have been defined as "all other main trunk or arterial roads of a State connecting up with National Highways or State Highways of adjacent States, district headquarters and important cities within the State, and serving as main arteries of traffic to and from District Roads.". These are usually maintained by State Governments and generally bridged and metalled and are completely motorable throughout the year, except that sometimes where there are causeways or submersible bridges, traffic may be interrupted in the monsoon for very short periods. State Highways usually have connections with National Highways.

"Major District Roads" are roughly of the same specifications as State Highways. These roads connect important marketing centres with railways, State Highways and National Highways.

"Other District Roads" are also of the same type as Major District Roads, except that they are subject to more frequent interruptions of traffic during the rains. They also serve market places. They are generally unmetalled.

The State Highways and, in most cases, the Major District Roads are also constructed and maintained by the State Public Works Department, and the cost, unlike in the case of the National Highways, is met out of State funds.

State Highways

Bombay-Konkan-Marmagoa-Karwar-Mangalore-Cochin-Cape Comorin Road

This highway starts from Bombay, enters Ratnagiri at its northern border after crossing Thana and Kolaba and runs south throughout the length of the district, a distance of about 212 miles upto Dodamarg on its southern border and then crosses Marmagoa

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

State Highways.

Bombay-Konkan-Marmagoa-Karwar-Mangalore-Cochin-Cape Comorin Road.

territory. In its course in the district, it passes through the Khed, Chiplun, Sangameshwar, Ratnagiri, Rajapur and Sawantwadi talukas and Lanje, Kankavli and Kudal mahals. It touches :—

Kashedi	in Mile 140/7	R.H.[1]
Bharna	in Mile 156/2	
Chiplun	in Mile 178/0	I.B.[2]
Sangameshwar	in Mile 208/1	I.B.
Pali	in Mile 233/4	R.H.
Lanje	in Mile 246/6	
Rajapur	in Mile 265/4	I.B.
Kharepatan	in Mile 279/4	R.H.
Nandgaon	in Mile 292/4	
Janoli	in Mile 300/4	
Kankavli	in Mile 302/2	D.L.B.R.H.[3]
Kasal	in Mile 311/4	R.H.
Kudal	in Mile 323	I.B.
Sawantwadi		R.H. and I.B.
Banda		T.B.[4]
Dodamarg		

There are 17 bridges across the road. Account of some of them is given in the section on bridges.

Going from north to south, the following important roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction	Name of the road	Class of the road
Bharna Naka	(1) Harnai-Khed	M.D.R.[5]
	(2) Khed-Khopi	M.D.R.
Chiplun	Chiplun-Karad	S.H.[6]
Savarda	Jayagad-Nivali	O.D.R.[7]
Asurde	Asurde-Kutra-Kuchambe-Panchambe.	O.D.R.
Aravali	Aravali-Makhajan	O.D.R.
Sangameshwar	(1) Sangameshwar-Nagar	O.D.R.
	(2) Sakharpa-Sangameshwar	M.D.R.
Hatkhamba	Ratnagiri-Kolhapur	S.H.
Lanje	(1) Lanje-Run	O.D.R.
	(2) Lanje-Advali	O.D.R.
Vatul	Vatul-Bhambed	O.D.R.

[1] R. H. = Rest House.
[2] I. B. = Inspection Bungalow.
[3] D. L. B. R. H. = District Local Board, Rest House.
[4] T. B. = Travellers' Bungalow.
[5] M. D. R. = Major District Road.
[6] S. H. = State Highway.
[7] O. D. R. = Other District Road.

Talera	...	Vaghotan—Kasarda	... M.D.R.
Nandagao	...	Deogad—Nipani	... S.H.
Kankavli	...	(1) Achare—Kankavli	... M.D.R.
		(2) Kankavli—Naradare	... O.D.R.
Pandur	...	Pandur—Ghotage	... O.D.R.
Kasal	...	Malvan—Kasal	... M.D.R.
Kudal	...	(1) Kudal—Bambuli	... O.D.R.
		(2) Kudal—Math	... M.D.R.
		(3) Kudal—Chandavan	... O.D.R.
Akeri	...	(1) Vengurla—Belgaum	... S.H.
		(2) Akeri—Hanmant Ghat	... M.D.R.
Sawantwadi	...	(1) Sawantwadi—Burdi	... M.D.R.
		(2) Sawantwadi—Aronda	... M.D.R.
Sherle	...	(1) Sherle—Vengurla	... O.D.R.
		(2) Sherle—Aronda	... O.D.R.
		(3) Sherle—Madura	... O.D.R.
Banda	...	Satuli—Netarda	... O.D.R.
Dodamarg	...	Dodamarg—Bhedshi	... O.D.R.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

State Highways.

The work of laying cement concrete and asphalt surface is in progress, and when completed some portion will have concrete surface and some will be black-topped.

Except for the small section between Sawantwadi and Dodamarg, the road is motorable throughout the year.

Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur-Hyderabad Road.

This highway starts from Mirya port and runs south-east, a distance of four miles upto Ratnagiri and then runs east, a distance of 41 miles and 4 furlongs to reach the up-ghat village viz. Amba where it enters Kolhapur district. The section of 7 miles on the Bombay–Konkan–Goa road from Hatkhamba to Pali is common with this road, excluding which, its length in the district is 34 miles and 6 furlongs. Amba Ghat has a length of 7 miles. The road passes through the Ratnagiri and Sangameshwar talukas.

It touches the following important places :—

Ratnagiri	...	Mile 4/3	I.B. and Municipal Bungalow.
Hatkamba	...	Mile 12/3	
Pali	...	Mile 19/3	R.H.
Sakharpa	...	Mile 35/7	R.H.

Going from west to east the following important roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.		Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Ratnagiri	...	Ratnagiri—Pomendi	... O.D.R.
Hatkhamba	...	Bombay—Konkan—Goa	... S.H.
Pali	...	Bombay—Konkan—Goa	... S. H.
Sakharpa	...	Sakharpa—Sangameshwar	... M.D.R.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

State Highways.

Mirya-Ratnagiri-Kolhapur-Miraj-Bijapur-Hyderabad Road.

Some portion of the road has a concrete surface and the rest of it is an asphalted one. It is motorable throughout the year.

Vengurla-Belgaum-Hubli-Bellary-Gooty-Nellore Road.

It starts from the Vengurla port and runs east for a distance of 41 miles and 6 furlongs upto the eastern border of the district, passing through the 7 mile long Amboli Ghat, and enters Belgaum taluka near Nagartas. It passes through the Vengurla and Kudal mahals and the Sawantwadi taluka.

It touches the following important places :—

Math	... Mile 4/6
Akeri	... Mile 13/4 R.H.
Kogaon	... Mile 15/4
Burdi	... Mile 18
Danoli	... Mile 24/6.
Amboli	... Mile 34/6 T.B.

Going from west to east the following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Math	... Kudal—Math	... M.D.R.
Akeri	... (1) Bombay—Konkan—Goa	... S.H.
	(2) Akeri—Hanmant Ghat	... M.D.R.
Burdi	... Sawantwadi—Burdi	... M.D.R.
Satuli	... Satuli—Netarda	... O.D.R.
Mile No. 39	... Ajara road	... M.D.R.

It has water bound macadam surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur-Hyderabad road.

This highway starts from Chiplun on the 'Bombay-Konkan-Goa' road and runs south-east, a distance of 17·7 miles, up to the border of the district and then crosses Satara border. It passes through Chiplun taluka only. It touches the following places :—

Kherdi	... Mile 2/4
Shirgao	... Mile 10

Going from west to east the following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Chiplun	... (1) Bombay—Konkan—Goa	... S.H.
	(2) Guhagar—Chiplun	... M.D.R.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

State Highways.

Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur-Hyderabad Road.

Deogad-Kaladgi Road.

The road has an asphalted surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Starting from the Deogad port it runs east, 39·94 miles upto the boundary of the district, passing through Phonda Ghat and then enters Kolhapur district. In its course in the district, it passes through Deogad taluka and Kankavli mahal. It touches :—

Jamsanda	...	"in Mile" 2/3
Shirgaon	...	"in Mile" 5/7
Tak Bazar	...	"in Mile" 9
Hadpad	...	"in Mile" 18/7
Koloshi	...	"in Mile" 20/2
Aslada	...	"in Mile" 22/5
Nandgaon	...	"in Mile" 24
Phonda	...	"in Mile" 31/5 R. H.

Going from west to east the following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Jamsande ...	Dabholi—Naringe—Poyara ...	O.D.R.
Nandgaon ...	Bombay—Konkan—Goa ...	S.H.
Phonda ...	Kasarda—Janoli ...	M.D.R.

It has water bound macadam surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Major District Roads.

Guhagar-Chiplun Road.

It starts from Guhagar and runs 27·5 miles east to reach Chiplun on the Bombay–Konkan–Goa road. It passes through Guhagar and Chiplun talukas.

It touches the following places :—

Pat Panhale	...	Mile 4
Chikhali	...	Mile 8/1
Margatamhane		Mile 13/1
Rampur		Mile 15/6
Shiral	...	Mile 24/5
Chiplun	...	Mile 26/4 I.B.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Mile 2/5 ...	Palshet—Sakhariajan ...	O.D.R.
Mile 7/8 ...	Chikhali—Kotluk—Abloli ..	M.D.R.
Mile 19/6 ...	Niraval—Omoli ...	O.D.R.
Mile 27/7 ...	Govalkot road ...	O.D.R.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

Major District Roads.

Guhagar-Chiplun Road.

It has water bound macadam surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Sangameshwar-Deorukh-Sakharpa Road.

It takes off in mile 208/1 from Sangameshwar on the Bombay–Konkan–Goa Road and runs 19·8 miles south-east upto Sakharpa on the Mirya–Ratnagiri–Kolhapur–Miraj–Bijapur–Hyderabad road (mile No. 35/5). It passes through Sangameshwar taluka only.

It touches–

Buramli	...	in Mile 3
Kosumb	...	in Mile 6/2
Sadovali	...	in Mile 8
Deorukh	...	in Mile 10/6 R.H.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :–

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Sangameshwar ...	Bombay–Konkan–Goa ...	S.H.
	Kusamb–Nandlaj ...	O.D.R.
Deorukh	Deorukh–Muradpur–Ojbare ...	O.D.R.
Sakharpa ...	Mirya–Ratnagiri–Kolhapur–Miraj–Bijapur–Hyderabad.	S.H.

The road has water bound macadam surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Phonda-Humbrat-Dasal-Malvan Road.

Starting from Phonda village on the Deogad–Kaladgi State Highway, it runs south-west to join Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway near Humbrat village and runs along the highway a distance of 14 miles and 4 furlongs upto Kasal where it bifurcates and runs west with a slight bulge in south, upto Malvan where it terminates. Its total length excluding the portion for which it runs on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa road, is 25·4 miles. It passes through Kankavli mahal and Malvan taluka.

It touches the following places :–

Kankavli	..	Mile 10/7	R.H.
Kasal	..	Mile 20/1	
Sukalwad	..	Mile 23	
Katta	..	Mile 27/1	
Chauka	..	Mile 33/1	
Malvan	..	Mile 40	

Phonda-Humbrat-Dasal-Malvan Road.

Following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Phonda ..	Deogad-Kaladgi ..	S.H.
Humbrat ..	Bombay-Konkan-Goa ..	S.H.
	Bandivde road ..	V.R.
	Palsambh road ..	V.R.
	Malond road ..	V.R.
	Malvan-Devali ..	V.R.

There is a major bridge over the road at Sukalwad. It is an all-weather road.

Anjarle-Harnai-Dapoli-Khed Road.

Starting from Anjarle it runs south a distance of 2 miles up to Harnai and then about 27·6 miles east up to Khed where it terminates The road length from Anjarle to Harnai is under District Local Board and the rest, which was under Public Works Department, has been very recently transferred to District Local Board for management. The mileage so covered is measured from Harnai. It passes through Dapoli and Khed talukas.

It touches the following places :—

Asud ..	Mile 3/8	
Dapoli ..	Mile 9	D.B.
Talsure ..	Mile 12/4	
Kumbha ..	Mile 15/5	
Phurus ..	Mile 19/8	
Sakharoli	Mile 22/5	
Khed ..	Mile 26	R.H.
Bharane Naka ..	Mile 27/5	

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Harnai ..	Harnai road ..	V.R.
Asud ..	Asud road ..	V.R.
	Murud-Karda ..	V.R.
Dapoli ..	(1) Dapoli-Choli-Burondi ..	O.D.R.
	(2) Dapoli-Dabhol ..	M.D.R.
Khed ..	Khed-Amba ..	O.D.R.
	Bombay-Konkan-Goa ..	S.H.
	Khed Khopi ..	M.D.R.
	Khed-Ambavli ..	O.D.R.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

Major District Roads.

Anjarle-Harnai-Dapoli-Khed Road

The road has water bound macadam surface and is an all-weather road.

Kudal-Math Road.

It starts from Kudal, on the 'Bombay-Konkan-Goa' road (State Highway) and runs south upto math, in mile No. 46 of the 'Vengurla-Belgaum' road (State Highway), a distance of 7·5 miles passing through Kudal and Vengurla petas.

It touches the following places :—

Pinguli	..	Mile 1/2
Math	..	Mile 7/4

Going from north to south, the following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Kudal ..	Bombay-Konkan-Goa	S.H.
Math ..	Vengurla-Belgaum	S.H.

The road has water bound macadam surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Khed-Khopi Road.

Starting from Bhosti, a village at mile No. 57 of the Bombay-Konkan-Goa road, it runs 11·3 miles east up to Khopi where it terminates. It has water bound macadam surface and is motorable throughout the year.

It touches :—

Hedvi	..	in mile No. 2/4
Ainavara	..	in mile No. 5/4
Kunwadi	..	in mile No. 8/2
Khopi	..	in mile No. 11/3

Except for the Bombay-Konkan-Goa road from which it emanates, no other road either emanates from it or is crossed by it.

Sawantwadi-Nirvade-Aronda Road.

It starts from Sawantwadi and runs 15·82 miles south-west up to Aronda, on the southern border of the district where it meets Goa territory. It passes through Sawantwadi taluka only.

It touches the following places :—

Malgaon	..	Mile 3
Niravde	..	Mile 6
Nhaveli	..	Mile 7
Malewad	..	Mile 10/7
Aronda	..	Mile 15/6

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

Major District Roads.

Sawantwadi-Niravade-Aronda Road.

Going from north to south the following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Sawantwadi ..	(1) Bombay-Konkan-Goa	S.H.
	(2) Sawantwadi-Burdi-Wad	M.D.R.
Niravade ..	Niravade-Aronda ..	O.D.R.
	Shirvada-Satara ..	O.D.R.

The road has, except for a quarter mile of asphalt section, water bound macadam surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Sawantwadi-Burdi Road.

This is a small road (2 miles and 2 furlongs) joining Sawantwadi and the village Burdi on the Vengurla-Belgaum road at mile 18·8. It passes through Sawantwadi taluka only and does not touch any place.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Sawantwadi ..	(1) Bombay-Konkan-Goa	S.H.
	(2) Sawantwadi-Aronda ..	M.D.R.
Burdi ..	Vengurla-Belgaum ..	S.H.

The road length of 1·75 miles has a black-topped surface and the rest has water bound macadam surface. It is motorable throughout the year.

Nagartaswadi-Ajra Road.

It takes off at mile No. 39 of Vengurla-Belgaum road (State Highway) and runs north-west, a distance of three miles to enter Kolhapur district. It passes through Sawantwadi taluka only.

In its course it passes through Nagartaswadi which is situated at a distance of 1 mile and 5 furlongs from Vengurla-Belgaum road.

No other road except Vengurla-Belgaum road crosses it nor does any road emanate from it.

It has water bound macadam surface and is motorable throughout the year.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

Major District Roads.

Akeri-Dukanwadi-Hanmantwadi Road.

It starts from Akeri at mile No. 13·9 of the Vengurla-Belgaum road (State Highway) and runs 22 miles north-east up to Hanmantwadi on the eastern boundary of the district. Of the total length of 22 miles, 13·5 miles are metalled and the rest are unmetalled. It passes through Kudal mahal only.

It touches the following places :—

Mangaon	..	Mile 0·5 I.B.
Karwada	..	Mile 8·4
Dukanwadi	..	Mile 14·3

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place or point of junction.	Name of the road.	Class of the road.
Akeri ..	(1) Vegurla-Belgaum ..	S.H.
	(2) Bombay-Konkan-Goa	S.H.

The road is motorable throughout the year.

Vijayadurg-Vaghotan-Kasarda Road.

This road starts from Vijayadurg and runs south-east and then to the east till Kasarda where it ends. The portion of the road from Vaghotan to Kasarda was formerly in charge of the Public Works Department. However, it has been transferred to the District Local Board for its maintenance. In its course, it touches the following important places :—(1) Girye, (2) Vaghotan, (3) Patgaon, (4) Phanasgaon, (5) Burhavade and (6) Darum.

In its course of west to east, the following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

	Name of the road.		Class of road.
1.	Vaghotan-Saundal-Tirlot	..	.. V. R.
2.	Vaghotan-Vanivada-Tamban road	..	.. V. R.
3.	Patgaon road.	..	.. V. R.
4.	Phanasgaon-Vindil	..	.. V. R.
5.	Kasarda road.	..	.. V. R.
6.	Bombay-Konkan-Goa	..	.. S. H.

The section of this road from Vaghotan to Kasarda is motorable and that between Vijayadurg and Vaghotan is subject to several impediments to its motorability.

Besides the above, there are a number of "Other District Roads" and approach roads maintained by the District Local Board. The following is an account of them :—

TABLE No. 2.

TALUKA-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF ROADS MAINTAINED BY THE DISTRICT LOCAL BOARD, RATNAGIRI.

Name of Road.	Starting point.	Ending point.	Nature of the road. Length Metalled.	Length Un metalled.	Total Length.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Chiplun Taluka.					
1. Rampur Gudhe ..	Mile 15/8 of Karad Road.	Guhagar Gudhe ..	4·01	2·24	6·25
2. Saraswati Bai Daji Sane.	Mile 20/6 of Karad Road.	Guhagar Kapre ..	3·75	1·50	5·25
3. Gokhale Road ..	Mile 20/6 of Karad Road.	Guhagar Tamhan .. mala	7·64	2·61	10·25
4. Pujya Babasaheb Nanal.	Mile 189/2 of Konkan-Goa Road.	Bombay Murtavade.	7·75	5·50	13·25
5. Sawarde Durgawadi.	Mile 188/4 of Konkan-Goa Road.	Bombay Durgawadi.	3·00	7·00	10·00
6. Asurde Kutre ..	Mile 192/1 of Konkan-Goa Road.	Bombay- Kutre ..	5·00	3·93	8·93
7. Kherdi Nirbade ..	Mile 28/8 of Karad Road.	Guhagar Nirbade ..	0·09	5·91	6·00
8. Pimpali Tiware ..	Mile 31/1 of Karad Road.	Guhagar Tiware ..	0·50	9·50	10·00
9. Pimpali Nandiose ..	Mile 31/6 of Karad Road.	Guhagar Nandiose.	..	10·00	10·00
10. Chinchkhari Adare ..	Mile 30/6 of Karad Road.	Guhagar Adare ..	..	4·00	4·00
11. Umroli Bamnoli ..	Mile 24/4 of Karad Road.	Guhagar Bamnoli ..	..	6·50	6·50
12. Kapsal Mandaki ..	Mile 180 on Konkan-Goa Road.	Bombay- Mandaki.	..	10·00	10·00
Dapoli Taluka.					
1. Dabhol Dapoli ..	Mile 9/2 of Harnai Road.	Khed Dabhol Wharf ..	17·12	..	17·12
2. Dapoli Vanoshi ..	Mile 0/5 of Dapoli Road.	Circle 3/2 of Dabhol Dapoli Road.	9·50	4·25	13·75
3. Anjarle Kadiwali ..	Mile 2/3 of Harnai Bankot Road.	Mile 9 of Kherdi Mandangad Road.	3·24	10·31	13·55

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

Other District Roads.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Name of Road.	Starting point.	Ending point.	Nature of the road. Length Metalled.	Length Un-metalled.	Total Length
1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Karde Saldure ..	Mile 3/1 of Harnai Road.	Khed Karde ..	0·02	3·48	3·50
5. Wakaoli Umbaware.	Mile 17/1 of Harnai Road.	Khed Umbaware ..	4·82	9·18	14·00
6. Wakaoli Matwan Tanger.	Mile 16/5 of Harnai Road.	Khed Mile 6/7 of Kherdi Mandangad Road.	1·97	8·03	10·00
7. Jalgaon Gavtale ..	Mile 9/8 of Harnai Road.	Khed Mile 3/4 of Wakawli Umbaware Road.	0·55	9·57	10·12
8. Sondhoghar Palavni.	Mile 10/7 of Dapoli Palgad Mandangad Road.	Mile 11 of Kherdi Mandangad Road.	0·42	13·58	14·00
9. Umbarle Gavrai ..	Mile 10 of Dabhol Road.	Dapoli Gavrai	..	5·00	5·00
10. Mala Agar Waigani.	Mile 8 of Dabhol Road.	Dapoli Agar Waigani ..	..	6·00	6·00
11. Dapoli Palgad Dahagaon.	Dapoli ..	.. Dahagaon	17 00	..	17·00
12. Kherdi Palavni ..	Mile 3/7 of Dapoli Dahagaon Road.	Palgad Mandangad Road.	4.75	5.25	10.00
13. Harnai Kelshi ..	Mile 0/2 of Harnai Road.	Khed Kelshi Creek ..	3·01	5·99	9·00
	Deogad Taluka.				
1. Vijayadurga Vaghotan.	Mile 18 of Kasarda Vaghotan.	Vaghotan ..	15·12	..	15·12
2. Varori Lingdal ..	Mile 09 of Deogad Nipani Road.	Lingdal ..	4·12	..	4·12
3. Tombavli Poyare..	Mile 74/3 of Deogad Nipani Road.	Poyare ..	11·50	3·00	14·50
4. Wada Tar to Padel.	Mile 8/7 of Vijayadurga Vaghotan Road.	Padel ..	5·09	..	5·09
	Guhagar Taluka.				
1. Nanasaheb Velankar.	Mile 2/3 of Guhagar Karad Road.	Palshet Bunder ..	..	5·03	5·03
2. Rao Bahadur Vichare.	Veldur Jetty	.. Beach of Guhagar.	9·37	0·88	10·25
3. Savlo Road ..	Mile 7/6 of Guhagar Karad Road.	Karool Jetty ..	4·67	2·58	7·25

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Name of Road.	Starting point.	Ending point.	Nature of the road. Length metalled.	Length Un-Metalled.	Total Length.
1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Guhagar Palshet Tavsal.	Mile 3/7 of Nanasaheb Velankar Road.	Tavsal .. Creek	6 00	10·75	16·75
5. Bhai R. S. Nimkar.	Mile 6 of Guhagar Karad Road.	Abloli ..	6·98	6·27	13·25
6. Kajarparya Veldur	Mile 0/3 of Veldur Guhagar Road.	2/3 of Rao Bahadur Vicharo Road.	0·05	3·95	4·00
Kankavli Taluka.					
1. Talere Phonda ..	Mile 48/1 of Deogad Nipani Road.	Phonda ..	9·00	..	9·00
2. Kankavli Nardave	Mile 302 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Nardave	4 61	10·99	15·60
Khed Taluka.					
1. Chinchghar Palgad.	Mile 22/5 of Harnai Khed Road.	11/7 of .. Dapoli Palgad Road.	7·75	..	7·75
2. Sir Roger Lumley	Mile 165/7 of Bombay Konkan Goa.	Shiv .. Creek	3 33	..	3·33
*3. Bharane Amboli ..	Mile 156/2 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Amboli ..	9·00	1 00	13·00
*4. Bhosten Khopi ..	Mile 157/1 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Khopi ..	8·85	3·15	12·00
*5. Khed Shivtar ..	Mile 25/8 of Bharane Khed	Shivtar ..	7·58	1·92	9·50
6. Kudoshi Dahivali	Mile 2/4 of Bharane Ambavli Road.	Mandave	8·68	3·42	12·10
7. Khed Sanghalat ..	Khari River ..	Sanghalat	3·06	2·19	5·25
8. A. L. Kanbere ..	Mile 165 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Ayani .	0·44	4·56	5 00
9. Ali Birmani ..	Mile 8/4 of Bharane Ambavli Road.	Birmani ..	..	8·00	8·00
10. Pandhargaon Bundar.	Mile 6 of Kherdi Road ..	Talvat .. Pali	..	6·50	6·50
11. Ambavli Bijaghar	Mile 7/8 of Bharane Ambavli, Road.	Bijaghar ..	.	4·00	4·00
12. Dhamani Poynar.	Mile 4 of Chinchghar Palgad.	Poynar ..	..	4·00	4·00

*These roads are under the Public Works Department.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

Other District Roads.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

	Name of Road.	Starting point.	Ending point.	Nature of the road. Length Metalled.	Length Un-metalled.	Total Length.
	1	2	3	4	5	6
		Kudal Taluka.				
1.	Pinguli Pat ..	Mile 384/1 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Pat ..	8·00	..	8·00
2.	Bibhavne Nerurpur.	Mile 5/8 of Akeri Kudal Road.	Nerurpur ..	.	6·47	6·47
3.	Kudal Walaval Kavathi.	Mile 323/5 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Kavathi ..	0·50	5·50	6·00
4.	Math Naneli ..	Mile 6/6 of Vengurla Belgaum P. W. D. Road.	Naneli ..	9·00	..	9·00
5.	Kasal Kalsuli ..	Mile 308/2 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Kalsuli ..	..	9·00	9·00
6.	Walaval Kavathi.	....	Kavathi ..	..	4·00	4·00
7.	Kudal Math Road.	....	Math ..	7·62	..	7·62
8.	Kudal Walaval Chendvan.	....	Walaval ..	.	4·00	4·00
9.	Wadi Humarmala Digas Gholagewadi Road.	....	Gholagewadi ..		24·00	24·00
10.	Wadi Ranganghat.	....	Ranganghat ..		7·00	7·00
11.	Bambarda Kusgaon	....	Kusgaon ..	..	9·00	9·00
		Lanje Taluka.				
1.	Watool Bhambed	Mile 255/2 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Bhambed. ..	8·37	..	8·37
2.	Lanje Asge ..	Mile 246/4 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Asge ..	4·50	..	4·50
3.	Lanje Veravali .	....	Veravali ..	3·31	..	3·31
4.	Dabhol Korle ..	Mile 26/8 of Ratnagiri Kolhapur Road.	Korle ..	9·50	..	9·50
5.	Asge Dabhol ..	Mile 246/4 of Bombay Konkan Goa Road.	Dabhol ..	6·00	..	6·00
6.	Korle Veravali ..	Mile 9/2 of Dabhol Korle Road.	Veravali ..	..	4·00	4·00
		Malvan Taluka.				
1.	Chowke Nerur ..	Mile 6/8 of Malvan Kasal Road.	Nerur ..	7·31	..	7·31

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Name of Road.	Starting point.	Ending point.	Nature of the road. Length Metalled.	Length Un-metalled.	Total Length.
1	2	3	4	5	6
	Malvan Taluka—contd.				
2. Masure-Masade ..	Mile 9/2 of Malvan-Belne Road.	Masade ..	3·23	1·61	4·84
3. Achre-Belne ..	....	Belne ..	13·50	4·00	17·50
4. Malvan-Belne ..	Mile 1/8 of Malvan-Kasal Road.	Belne ..	15·66	0·59	16·25
5. Kolamb-Achre ..	Mile 0/1 of Kolamb-Sarjekot Road	Achre ..	8·95	2·05	11·00
6. Katta-Kalse ..	Mile 12/1 of Malvan-Kasal Road.	Kalse ..	1·10	4·08	5·18
7. Kandalgaon-Masure	Mile 1/6 of Kolamb-Achre Road.	Masure ..	1·00	5·00	6·00
	Mandangad Taluka.				
1. Mandangad-Mhapral.	Mile 19 of Kherdi-Mandangad Road.	Mhapral Jetty ..	9·75	..	9·75
2. Dahagaon-Mandangad.	Mile 18 of Dapoli-Palgad Road.	Mandangad.	9·25	..	9·25
3. Palvani-Mandangad	Mile 11 of Kherdi-Palgad Road.	Mandangad. ..	9·25	..	9·25
4. Kelshi-Bankot ..	Mile 9 of Harnai-Bankot Road.	Bankot ..	..	5·00	5·00
5. Mandangad-Bankot	Mile 26/2 of Dapoli-Palgad Mandangad Road.	Bankot Jetty ..	2·52	11·48	14·00
6. Visapur-Latvan Karle.	Mile 16 of Dapoli-Palgad -Mandangad Road.	Kolaba District Border.	7·53	0·22	7·75
7. Palen-Nigadi ..	Mile 5 of Mandangad-Bankot Road.	Nigadi Jetty ..	.	9·00	9·00
8. Mandangad-Shenale P. W. D. Road.	Mandangad ..	Shenale ..	..	5·00	5·00
9. Kelshi-Mandivli Devhara.	Mile 8/2 of Harnai-Bankot Road. ..	Mile 8 of Mandangad Bankot Road.	..	11·00	11·00
10. Kambalen-Taleghar.	Mile 21/5 of Dapoli-Palgad -Mandangad Road.	Taleghar	0·24	3·76	4·00
	Rajapur Taluka.				
1. Rajapur-Gavkhadi.	Rajapur ..	Gavkhadi Creek	20·50	..	20·50
2. Rajapur-Anaskura	Mile 266/6 of Bombay Konkan-Goa Road.	Anaskura	19·50	2·50	22·00

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

Other District Roads.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

	Name of Road.	Starting point.	Ending point.	Nature of the road. Length Metalled.	Length Un-metalled.	Total Length.
	1	2	3	4	5	6
		Rajapur Taluka—contd.				
3	Dartale-Musakaji	Mile 9/2 of Rajapur-Gavkhadi Road.	Musakaji Jetty	5·31	2·31	7·62
4.	Rajapur-Satavli ..	Mile 0/2 of Rajapur-Gavkhadi Road.	Near Satavli river.	8·52	1·48	10·00
5.	Adivre-Vijayadurga	Mile 13/2 of Rajapur-Gavkhadi Road.	Vijayadurga Creek	1·51	10·49	12·00
6.	Oni-Saundal	Mile 258/6 of Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road.	Saundal	1·50	3·87	5·37
7.	Rajapur-Vaghotan	Rajapur Road ..	Nanar Creek	..	14·00	14·00
8.	Hativle-Juvathi .	Mile 271/4 of Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road.	Juvathi	..	6·00	6·00
9.	Vhel-Raypatan Anaskura ..	3/4 of Nivli-Ganpatipule Road.	14/0 of Rajapur Anaskura Road.	1·39	8·61	10·00
		Ratnagiri Taluka.				
1.	Bhatye Road ..	Bhatye Creek.	Purnagad Jetty	12·75	..	12·75
2.	Tarval-Pochari ..	Mile 8/6 of Nivli-Ganapatipule Road.	Pochari	4·65	..	4·65
3.	Ratnagiri-Jaygad.	Ratnagiri	Jaygad	17·03	6·79	23·82
4.	Ratnagiri-Wandri.	Mile 1/2 of Ratnagiri-Amba Road.	Wandri ..	4·38	8·00	12·38
5.	Nivli-Ganapatipule.	Mile 225/4 of Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road.	Ganapatipule ..	18·50	..	18·50
6.	Chafe-Jaygad ..	Mile 11/8 of Nivli-Ganapati pule.	Jaygad ..	6·61	4·39	11·00
7.	Pali-Bambar ..	Pali	Bambar ..	0·89	4·11	5·00
8.	Malgund-Nivendi.	Mile 13 of Ratnagiri-Jaygad Road.	Nivendi ..	..	4·00	4·00
9.	Karle-Someshwar.	Karle	Someshwar ..	..	4·00	4·00
10.	Mirjole-Bhoke ..	Mirjole	Bhoke ..	..	5·00	5·00
11.	Areware-Nevre ..	Areware	Nevre ..	..	3·25	3·25
12.	Laper-Shirgaon ..	Laper	Shirgaon	0·25	3·54	3·79
13.	Punas Sapuche Tale	Punas	Tale ..	2·45	3·55	6·00
14.	Tonde-Kot	Tonde	Kot ..	..	7·00	7·00

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Name of Road.	Starting point.	Ending point.	Nature of the road. Length Metalled.	Length Un-metalled.	Total Length.
1	2	3	4	5	6
		Sangameshwar Taluka.			
1. Deole-Deorukh ..	Mile 24/1 of Ratnagiri-Kolhapur Road.	Mile 8/6 of Sakharpa Sangameshwar Road.	..	10·00	10·00
2. Aravli-Makhjan ..	Mile 296/1 of Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road.	Makhjan ..	5·50	..	5·50
3. Deorukh-Pangari ...	Deorukh ..	.. Pangari ..	5·46	3·79	9·25
4. Golavli Masrang ..	Mile 22/2 of Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road.	Masrang ..	..	4·00	4·00
5. Bhadakambe-Deode	Mile 31/8 of Ratnagiri Kolhapur Road.	Deode ..	..	10·00	10 00
6. Phungus-Parchure.	Phungus	.. Parchure ..	..	5·00	5·000
7. Phungus-Medhe ..	Phungus	.. Medhe ..	..	10·00	10·0
8. Pangri-Bav River.	Pangari	.. Mile 221 of Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road.		4·00	04·0
		Sawantwadi Taluka.			
1. Banda-Malgaon-Hodavde	Mile 2/2 of Sawantwadi-Aronda Road.	Hodavde ..	4·63	5·37	10·0
2. Niravda-Aronda ..	Mile 0 of Sawantwadi-Aronda Road.	Aronda ..	9·18	..	0·18
3. Mazagaon-Tamboli.	Mile 1/8 of Sawantwadi-Dodamarg Road.	Tamboli ..	3·12	4 88	8·00
4. Dodamarga-Bhedshi.	Mile 23/2 of Sawantwadi-Dodamarg Road.	Bhedshi ..	1·00	3·75	4·75
5. Banda-Netarda ..	Mile 8/3 of Sawantwadi-Dodamarg Road.	Netarda ..	2·00	3·38	5·88
6. Sherla Aros ..	Mile 7/2 of Sawantwadi-Dodamarg Road.	Aros	..	6·75	6·75
7. Banda-Danoli ..	Mile 24/2 of Vengurla-Belgaum Road.	Danoli ..	0·50	8·50	9·00
8. Madkhol-Parpoli ..	Mile 23/4 of Vengurla-Belgaum Road.	Parpoli ..	..	4 00	4·00
9. Ramghat-Mahadevgad.	Mile 34/4 of Vengurla-Belgaum Road.	Mahadevgad..	3·38	12·64	16·02
10. Amboli-Narayangad	Mile 35/3 of Vengurla-Belgaum Road.	Narayangad ..	2·25	2·75	5·00
11. Padva-Kalsar ..	Padva ..	.. Kalsar ..	..	4·	4·00
12. Dodamarg-Bhedshi-Konal.	Mile 23/3 of Sawantwadi-Dodamarg Road.	Konal ..	..	5·	5·12

CHAPTER 10. — Transport and Communications. ROADS. Other District Roads.

TABLE No. 2—contd.

	Name of Road.	Starting point.	Ending point.	Nature of the road. Length Metalled.	Length Un-metalled.	Total Length.
	1	2	3	4	5	6
		Sawantwadi Taluka—contd.				
13	Konal-T e r e y a n-Medhe.	Konal ..	.. Medhe ..	..	4·00	4·00
14	P a d v e-Mazagaon-Kumbhavde.	Padve ..	.. Kumbhavde	..	12·00	12·00
15.	Charatha-Vasoli ..	Charatha ..	.. Vasoli ..	..	18·50	18·50
16.	Sasoli-Ramghat ..	Sasoli ..	.. Ramghat ..	..	10·25	10·25
17.	Madkhol-Kesari ..	Madkhol ..	.. Kesari ..	..	6·50	6·50
		Vengurla Taluka.				
1.	Ramghat Road ..	Vengurla ..	.. Ramghat ..	..	6·30	6·30
2.	Vengurla-Redi ..	Vengurla ..	.. Redi ..	8·37	1·50	9·87
3.	Dabholi-Tarkarli ..	Vengurla ..	.. Tarkarli ..	2·79	9·33	12·12
4.	Dabholi-Khanoli ..	Mile 0/6 of Dabholi-Kelus Road.	Khanoli ..	..	3·56	3·56
5.	Matonda-Approach Road	Matonda ..	.. Khanoli ..	..	3·25	3·25

ROAD DEVELOPMENT IN FIVE-YEAR PLANS.

The primary aim in respect of road development was (1) to improve the standard of roads in charge of the District Local Board by repairing them, and (2) to construct new roads with a view to improving the position regarding communications.

During the First Plan period, the following roads under District Local Board in Khed and Mandangad talukas were taken up for improvement :—

	Name of the Road.	Length in miles,	Estimated Cost.	Expenditure up to the end of First Plan Period.	Remarks.
			Rs.	Rs.	
1.	Khed-Khopi-Shrigaon Road, Section from Khed to Khopi.	11·34	8,50,400	7,29,200	The road is completed and opened for traffic.
2.	Khed-Ambivli-Birmani Road.	10·03	8,19,300	7,68,100	Completed in 1955-57.
3.	Khed-Shivatar ..	8·92	3,97,500	1,73,500	Completed.
4.	Chiplun-Kadawali-Dhamnad-Pali Road.	15·50	6,56,600	1,46,400	Work is nearing completion.
5.	Mhapral-Kumla-Visapur-Pali-Sakhroli Road (Visapur-Kumla Section).	7·00	3,32,000	3,04,800	Work is in progress and will be completed during the Second Plan period.

Construction of the Oni-Rayapatan Road (12·01 miles) was undertaken to connect Ratnagiri and Kolhapur districts through the Anaskura Ghats. During the First Plan period, a length of 2½ miles costing Rs. 3,58,484 was undertaken. The remaining work is in progress and the entire road is expected to be completed during the Second Plan period. In addition to this, three new road works were also taken up under the First Plan. viz., (i) Guhagar-Chiplun Road (construction of a culvert), (ii) Bankot-Mandangad Road (Mandangad-Shenala Section), and (iii) Pagewadi Diversion. The work of constructing a culvert on the Guhagar-Chiplun Road was taken up at an estimated cost of Rs. 1,27,000 and it is nearing completion. The Mandangad-Shenala section (length 4 miles) is completed. The Pagewadi Diversion road was taken up to obviate the transport difficulties on the flood-affected portion of the Bombay-Konkan-Goa road near Chiplun. The expenditure on the road length of 1·75 miles came to Rs. 1,05,538. These works are continued in the Second Five Year Plan.

In January 1954, a programme for the development of the West Coast Road at the estimated cost of one crore of rupees was sanctioned by the Government of India. The road starts from mile 45/1 in Kolaba District and ends at mile 332/1 in Ratnagiri district. Looking to the importance of the road, the Central Government agreed to develop the road to the standard of a through (fully-bridged) road with asphalted one-way carriageway.

The work of cement-concreting of the Ratnagiri-Kolhapur road was included in the programme. In order to ensure expeditious completion, the work which extends over 41 miles was suitably divided into three parts. Up to the end of the First Plan period 21·3 miles of road work was completed at the cost of Rs. 20,93,700. During the first year of the Second Plan (1956-57), work on additional seven miles was completed.

During the Second Plan period. the following new roads were taken up in addition to the spill-over works of the First Plan :—

	Length in miles.
(*i*) Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road (State Highway). ..	4
(*ii*) Malvan-Kasal Road	2
(*iii*) Sangameshwar-Sakharpa Road	1
(*iv*) Mangaon-Humrat Section on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road. ..	5·25

The Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road (125 miles track) will also be modernised by cement-concreting it.

CHAPTER 9. — Transport and Communications. ROADS. DEVELOPMENT IN FIVE YEAR PLANS.

The following major bridges were undertaken during the First Plan period :—

(1) Bridges over the rivers Amba, Kelna and Dhamnad on the Chiplun-Kadawli-Dhamnad-Pali Road.

(2) Bridge over the Dubi river on the Khed-Khopi Road.

(3) Bridge over the Chorad Nalla and Jagbudi river on the Khed-Ambavli-Birmani Road.

(4) Bridge across Terekhol river near Banda on the Sawantwadi-Dodamarg Road.

Bridges under (1) and (2) above were completed, while the other two were in progress.

Minor bridges on the Khed-Khopi Road, Khed-Ambavali-Birmani Road, and Sangameshwar-Deorukh-Sakharpa Road were also taken up for construction in the First Plan Of these, the bridges on the Khed-Khopi Road were completed. Old bridges on the Malvan-Kasal Road were repaired and the work of modernising the bridges on the Guhagar-Chiplun Road and on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa Road has been undertaken. The remaining bridges are expected to be completed before 1961.

Statistics of Municipal Roads.

The analysis of road mileage in the municipalities given below would give some idea regarding the urban road statistics :—

TABLE No. 3.

STATISTICS OF MUNICIPAL ROADS.

Name of Municipality	Metalled		Unmetalled		Total	
	Miles	Furlongs.	Miles	Furlongs.	Miles	Furlongs.
Khed ..	2	4	3	4	6	0
Chiplun ..	9	0	1	2	10	2
Sawantwadi ..	5	7	12	6	18	5
Malvan ..	8	2	3	0	11	2
Rajapur ..	..	..	11	0	11	0
Vengurla ..	12	2	0	1	12	3
Ratnagiri ..	24	6	9	7	34	5
	62	5	41	4	104	1

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

ROADS.

Statistics of Municipal Roads.

The table shows that out of a total road mileage of 104/1, urban road mileage in Ratnagiri district, metalled and unmetalled, was 62 miles and 5 furlongs, and 41 miles and 7 furlongs, respectively, in 1958.

Statistics of Vehicles in Municipal Towns.

Table below gives the number of vehicles plying in the municipal towns of Ratnagiri district. The vehicles are divided into five categories as below :—

Motor vehicles	300
Horse-drawn vehicles	..
Ox-drawn vehicles	557
Bicycles	1,861
Hand-drawn carts	37

Ratnagiri municipal town has a local bus service which is run by the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation. In place of horsedrawn vehicles special type of ox-drawn carts, called *Dhamanies*, are used for passenger traffic.

BRIDGES.

As a considerable number of streams, rivers and creeks cross the country-side of Ratnagiri district, it has been necessary in the interest of smooth and quick road transport, to build bridges at points where roads with heavy traffic cross the rivers.

The major bridges and causeways in the district are described below :—

1. The masonry arched bridge over the Jagbudi river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 156/4 near Khed was constructed at a cost of Rs. 97,600. It has a linear waterway of 330 feet.

2. The R. C. C. deck girder bridge over the Vashishti river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 176·14 near Chiplun has a linear waterway of 240 feet. Its cost of construction was Rs. 62,393 approximately.

3. The R. C. C. deck girder bridge over the Vashishti river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 176/5 near Chiplun. It has a linear waterway of 240 feet.

4. The masonry arched bridge over the river Gad on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 195/7 near Aravali has a linear waterway of 240 feet. Its cost of construction was Rs. 65,959.

5. The R. C. C. girder bridge over the river Shastri on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 206/5 near Sangameshwar has a linear waterway of 250 feet. Its cost of construction was Rs. 69,529.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.
Bridges.

6. The R. C. C. girder bridge over the Sonvi river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 208/1 near Sangameshwar has a linear waterway of 183 feet. It was constructed at a cost of Rs. 68,393.

7. The masonry arched bridge over the Saptalingi on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 219/5 near Vandri has a linear waterway of 270 feet. It was constructed at a cost of Rs. 90,200.

8. The masonry arched bridge over the Bao river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 222/3 near Nivali has a linear waterway of 270 feet. Its cost of construction was Rs. 1,57,000.

9. The masonry arched bridge over the Kajavi river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 240/2 near Anjanari has a linear waterway of 180 feet. It was constructed at a cost of Rs. 74,000.

10. The masonry arched bridge over the Muchkundi river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 254/2 near Waked has a linear waterway of 180 feet. Its cost of construction was Rs. 65,702.

11. The R. C. C. open spandrel arched bridge over the Rajapur river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 266/7 near Rajapur has a linear waterway of 240 feet. It was constructed at Rs. 1,85,000.

12. The masonry arched bridge over the Kharepatan river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 278/4 near Kharepatan has a linear waterway of 270 feet.

13. The masonry arched bridge over the Piyali river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 291/4 near Nandgaon has a linear waterway of 180 feet. Its cost was Rs. 40,698.

14. The masonry arched bridge over the Janoli river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 301/5 near Kankavli has a linear waterway of 240 feet. It was constructed at a cost of Rs. 68,597.

15. The masonry arched bridge over the Gad river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 303/1 near Kankavli has a linear waterway of 360 feet. Its cost was Rs. 95,366.

16. The masonry arched bridge over the Kasal river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 309/4 near Kasal has a linear waterway of 180 feet. Its cost was Rs. 55,316.

17. The masonry arched bridge over the Bhamburda river on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway at mile 319/2 near Bhamburda has a linear waterway of 120 feet. Its cost of construction was Rs. 36,809.

18. The R. C. C. deck girder bridge over the Sonvi river on the Sakharpa-Sangameshwar road at mile 16/5 near Sangameshwar has a linear waterway of 210 feet and was constructed at a cost of Rs. 94,702.

19. The R. C. C. deck girder bridge over the Sukalwad river on the M. K. road at mile 17. It has a linear waterway of 120 feet. Its cost of construction was Rs. 29,453.

20. There is a submersible low level bridge over the Bombay-Konkan-Goa road crossing the Pitdhaval river near Oros at mile No. 316/4.

21. There is a submersible low level bridge over the Terekhol river which crosses the Sawantwadi-Dodamarg road at mile 7 near Banda.

FERRIES.

Interruptions to through traffic are numerous due to a net-work of rivers and rivulets in the district. But for ferries, thoroughfare becomes well nigh impossible on account of the absence of bridges over many a river and creek. Many ferries ply only in the monsoon, as the swelling waters begin to recede from October.

Almost all the ferries are country crafts manned by two or three ferrymen. *Hodis* ply across rivers. The sailing vessels plying across creeks are called *machwas*. A *hodi* can accommodate four persons, while a *machwa* can carry fifty persons.

The following Statement shows the location of ferries in the district :—

TABLE No. 4.

FERRIES IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Taluka or Peta.	Location of ferry.	Name of the river or creek on which the ferry plies.	Whether seasonal or perennial.
1	2	3	4
Chiplun	.. Dhadpoli	.. Vashishti river	.. Seasonal.
Dapoli	.. Ade	..	Perennial.
	Kelshi	.. Bharja river	.. Do.
	Anjarle	.. Jog river	.. Do.
	Bandh Tiware	.. Do.	.. Seasonal.
Deogad	.. Jamsande.	Deogad Creek (Piyali river).	.. Perennial.
	Waghotan	.. Waghotan river	.. Do.
	Tembaoli	.. Piyali river.	.. Do.
	Mithamumbri	Mithamumbri river	.. Do.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications. Ferries.

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

Taluka or Peta	Location of ferry	Name of the river or creek on which the ferry plies.	Whether seasonal or perennial.
1	2	3	4
Deogad ..	Vijayadurg ..	Waghotan river ..	Seasonal
	Kharepatan ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Shejavali ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Mutat ..	Do. ..	Perennial.
Guhagar ..	Veldur ..	Dabhol creek (Vashishti river) ..	Do.
Khed ..	Khed ..	Jagbudi river ..	Seasonal.
	Sukhiwali ..	Chorad river ..	Do.
	Kudavashi ..	Jagbudi (Pendhur) ..	Do.
Kudal ..	Oros Bk. ..	Karli river ..	Do.
	Ghavnala ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Mandkuli ..	Do. ..	Perennial
	Anao ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Pulas ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Varde (Awalagaon)	Do ..	Do.
Malvan ..	Turkerli ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Deobag ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Revandi ..	Gad river. ..	Do.
	Veral ..	Veral nala ..	Seasonal.
	Kalse ..	Kalse creek ..	Perennial
Mandangad ..	Mhapral ..	Savitri river ..	Do.
	Panderi ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Bankot ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Nigadi ..	Do. ..	Do.
Rajapur ..	Jaytapur ..	Jaytapur creek ..	Do.
	Yashwantgad ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Harche ..	Muchkundi river ..	Do.
	Dande Ansure ..	Vijayadurg creek ..	Do.
	Padave ..	Padave river ..	Do.
	Karel ..	Anaskura river ..	Do.
Ratnagiri ..	Kalbadevi ..	Kalbadevi creek ..	Do.
	Ganapatipule ..	Ganapatipule creek ..	Do.

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

Taluka or Peta	Location of ferry.	Name of the river or creek on which the ferry plies.	Whether seasonal or perennial.
1	2	3	4
Ratnagiri—*contd.*	Are	.. Are creek	.. Perennial.
	Nevre	.. Nevre creek	.. Do.
	Varavde	.. Varavde river	.. Do.
	Tonade	.. Kajavi river	.. Do.
	Jambhari	.. Shastri Jaygad river	Do.
	Rai	.. Shastri Jaygad river	Do.
	Someshwar	.. Kajavi river	.. Do.
	Harcheri	.. Do.	.. Seasonal.
	Purnagad	.. Purnagad creek	.. Perennial.
	Bhatye.	.. Bhatye creek	.. Do.
	Tavsal	.. Shastri Jaygad river	Do.
Sangameshwar ..	Karambele.	.. Bav river	.. Seasonal.
	Makhajan	.. Gad river	.. Perennial.
	Ghativale	.. Kajali river	.. Do.
	Wandri	.. Bav river	.. Do.
	Kurdhonde	.. Do.	.. Do.
	Phungus	.. Do.	.. Do.
	Meghi	. Do.	.. Seasonal.
	Burambad	.. Do.	.. Perennial.
	Boriwale	.. Kajali	.. Seasonal.
Sawantwadi ..	Bande	.. Terekhol river	.. Perennial.
	Aronda	.. Do.	.. Do.
	Aronda (Kiranpani).	Do.	.. Do.
	Satarde	.. Do.	.. Do.
	Kas	.. Do.	.. Do.
	Insuli	.. Do.	.. Do.
	Talavane	.. Talavane river.	.. Do.
	Satose	.. Terekhol river.	.. Do.
	Talavade	.. Talavada river	.. Do.
	Hodavade Matond	.. Hodavada river	.. Do.
	Maneri	.. Maneri river	.. Do.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

FERRIES.

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

Taluka or Peta.	Location of ferry.	Name of the river or creek on which the ferry plies.	Whether seasonal or perennial.
1	2	3	4
Sawantwadi ..	Kolzar ..	Kalora river ..	Perennial.
	Vilavde Otavne ..	Terekhol river ..	Do.
Vengurla ..	Mochemad ..	Mochemad creek ..	Do.
	Kelus ..	Kelus creek ..	Do.
	Khanoli ..	Khanoli river ..	Do.

PORTS.

With a long coastal strip, the district has quite a few ports which connect it with Bombay and other market centres in the State. In the absence of railways, the ports are regarded as the main arteries of the district. The main ports are : Ratnagiri, Vijaygad, Malvan, Vengurla, Jaygad, Purnagad, Varoda, Achra, Deogad, Niwati, Jaytapur, Harnai, Borya, Dabhol and Bankot.

The following is a description of these ports :—

Ratnagiri.

Ratnagiri is an open port with an anchorage at a distance of about one mile from it. The sea bed near the port is enturned by huge high rocks which make navigation near the port unsafe. The cargo is unloaded at Rajiwade creek which is at a distance of nearly half a mile from the port. The creek is navigable for country crafts only, due to the layout of a sandy bar at its entrance which makes it risky for bigger ships to enter except at light tide. The passenger steamers anchor at a distance of about a mile from the port.

The port is in charge of the Range Officer of the Central Excise Department. The embarkation and disembarkation of steamer passengers is attended to by representatives of the Bombay Steam Navigation Co. Ltd. or by their paid contractors. The average number of passengers embarking and disembarking in the port per year is 70.656 and 75,726 respectively.

The following is an account of the sources and destinations of imports and exports :—

Imports.—Mangalore tiles from Mangalore, timber from Karwar, cement from Jamnagar, salt from Mora, food-stuffs and sundry goods from Bombay.

Exports.—Mangoes to Bombay, jaggery (imported from the ghats) to Saurashtra, dry fish to Bombay, etc.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

PORTS. Ratnagiri.

The transport for goods is provided by trucks and bullock carts. The absence of railways, and the fact that the nearest railway station viz. Kolhapur is 82 miles away from the main sea port affect the terms and conditions of trade more adversely than they do in case of other ports in the State which are well-served by a net work of railways.

Vengurla.

Vengurla situated on the western coast is an open port and is exposed to south-west winds. It is connected with the hinterland by the following roads :—(1) Vengurla-Shiroda road, (2) Vengurla-Sawantwadi-Belgaum road and (3) Vengurla-Kudal-Ratnagiri-Malvan road.

There is a regular steamer service between Bombay and Vengurla during fair weather, that is, from September to May. The average number of passengers embarking and disembarking per year is 40,870 and 16,876 respectively.

The Inspector of Customs is in charge of the port. He is mainly responsible for the administration of the customs work. The controlling authority is the Collector of Central Excise, Bombay. Most of the trade, inward as well as outward, takes place with Bombay. Besides, dry fish is exported to Mangalore and iron ores to Japan.

The coastal trade is carried in sailing vessels visiting this port.

The nearest railway station is Belgaum which is at a distance of nearly 80 miles and as such the impact of railways on the traffic is not remarkable.

Malvan.

The Malvan port is situated at a distance of 23 miles from Deogad and 22 miles from Vengurla. Vessels anchor 200 feet away from the shore due to the absence of landing facilities.

Passenger steamers call at this port twice a day during the fair weather, that is, between September and May. The average number of passengers embarked and disembarked at this port is 19,268 and 17,821, respectively.

The commodities imported at this port are; *tur dal* grains, jowar, rice, wheat, wheat flour, kerosene, sugar, ground-nut, oil-cakes, coconut oil, tea, petrol, betel-nuts, etc. The chief items of export from this port are; cashew-kernels, dry fish, mangoes, bamboos, coir rope, *hirda*, silica sand, etc.

This port is under the control of the Superintendent, Central Excise and administered by an Inspector of Customs.

Vijayadurg.

The Vijayadurg port is situated midway between Malvan and Ratnagiri at the mouth of the Vijayadurg creek. Its coastal jurisdiction extends six miles towards the north up to the Jaytapur lighthouse.

CHAPTER 9.
—— .
Transport and Communications.
PORTS.
Vijayadurg.

Goods weighing about 200 tons are generally loaded or unloaded at the port daily. The cargo brought by sea is transported by creek up to Kharepatan which is 26 miles up from Vijayadurg.

The controlling authority of this port is Assistant Range Officer.

The chief commodities imported in this port are food-stuffs, pulses, salt, oil-cakes, sugar, cement and dry fish. The chief commodities exported from this port are; mangoes, jungle-wood, hemp, bamboos and cocoanuts.

Food-stuffs and general merchandise are imported from Bombay, salt from Mora and Karanja, tiles from Mangalore and salted fish from Malvan and Karwar. Mangoes, wood and salted fish are sent to Bombay.

The statistics regarding the number of passengers embarked and disembarked at this port for the last five years are given in the table below :—

	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57
Embarking	22,900	25,873	23,258	27,533	26,728	29,605
Disembarking	23,731	24,693	23,532	25,428	25,051	27,507

Jaytapur.

The Jaytapur port is situated in Jaytapur creek, three miles from the mouth of the sea. Besides, Jaytapur also provides landing facilities at Musakaji which is situated at the mouth of the Jaytapur creek at a distance of three miles from Jaytapur. At these two places jetties have been constructed to facilitate landing of goods and passengers. Jaytapur commands a hinterland of the Rajapur taluka and is connected to Rajapur through Musakaji by a *Kaccha* road 24 miles in length. Privately owned passenger buses ply on this road during the fair weather season.

The port is administered and controlled by the Inspector of Central Excise, who has to supervise the operations of the port, detect cases of smuggling, etc.

The number of passengers embarked and disembarked for five years between 1952 and 1957 is given below :—

Year.	No. of Passengers.	
	Embarking.	Disembarking.
1952-53	28,167	15,363
1953-54	15,627	19,583
1954-55	15,578	23,804
1955-56	30,896	29,558
1956-57	29,986	30,568

The commodities imported in this port are; rice, jowar, salt, sugar, cement, tea, Mangalore tiles and oil-cakes. The commodities exported from this port are; mangoes, bamboos and hemp.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

PORTS.

Deogad.

Deogad is a minor port situated at a distance of 23 miles from Malvan towards the north, on the bank of Deogad creek. The creek is navigable up to six miles in the interior in case of sailing vessels having a capacity of about 40 to 50 tons.

A passenger steamer calls at this port twice a day on its up and down voyage during the fair season, anchoring just at the mouth of the creek, about two furlongs from the Customs House.

The port is connected to following places, *viz*. Kolhapur, Ratnagiri, Malvan, Vengurla and Satara through Phonda. The road from Deogad to Phonda is motorable. State Transport buses run on these routes. However, any one compelled to travel in the rainy season has to do so with hardship.

The controlling and inspecting authority of this port is vested in a Supervisor, who is under the control of the Range Officer, Central Excise and Customs, Malvan.

During 1956-57, 24,879, passengers embarked and 24,565 passengers disembarked at this port.

The following are the chief commodities imported in this port; rice, wheat, jowar, cement, salt, tiles, petrol, oil-cakes, sugar and kerosene. The chief commodities exported from this port are; mangoes, salted fish, hemp, fish manure, rice, etc.

Bankot.

Bankot port situated on the west coast is nearly 80 miles from Bombay and nine miles from Shriwardhan.

Shallow waters prevent the anchorage of steamers in this port and as such there are no landing facilities for passengers. There is a regular launch service plying between Bankot and Dasgaon.

The Range Officer is in charge of general administration of the port.

Goods traffic is carried in sailing vessels. Cargo generally includes food-grains, cocoanuts, Mangalore tiles, fire-wood, etc.

Dabhol.

This is one of the few ports on the west coast where steamers from Bombay can come right upto the wharf. This is responsible for a sizeable passenger traffic to and from Bombay.

The wharf is maintained from the landing and wharfage fees fund. The port provides considerable amenities to passengers in the form of waiting rooms, sheds etc. The port is connected either by sea or by road to most of the taluka headquarters in the district.

It is administered and controlled by the Range Officer, Central Excise, Dabhol.

CHAPTER 9. — Transport and Communications. Ports. Dabhol.

The commodities imported in this port are; rice, coal, wheat, kerosene, cement, tiles, salt and teak wood. The chief exports from this port are; white betel-nuts, jaggery, teak-wood and myrobalans. The main destination of exports is Bombay. In respect of imports of commodities, salt is imported from Uran and Mora in Kolaba district; roofing tiles and ridges from Mangalore and Coondapur, teak-wood from Calicut; and cement from Porbundar.

Harnai.

Harnai is situated at eighteen miles from Dabhol towards north. In the absence of any regular landing facility, the goods are landed from *machwa* to a toney and from toney to the fore-shore.

It is linked with Bombay by a regular steamer service. The number of passengers embarked and disembarked during 1953 to 1958 is given below :—

Year.	No. of Passengers.	
	Embarked.	Disembarked.
1953-54	39,765	41,347
1954-55	34,560	39,869
1955-56	38,570	40,260
1956-57	33,723	39,397
1957-58	35,463	44,845.

The chief commodities imported in this port are; food-grains, pulses, Mangalore tiles, sugar, tea, kerosene, salt and miscellaneous goods. The main articles of exports are; rice, myrobalans, jowar, wheat, dry fish, betel-nuts, etc.

The controlling authority of this port is vested in the Superintendent, Central Excise, Murud.

Other Ports.

The other minor ports are; Achra, Niwati, Jaygad, Varoda Purnagad and Borya.

Achra is a small port situated at a distance of 13 miles from Malvan on the mouth of the Achra creek. Steamers anchor at a considerable distance from the port which has no landing facility.

Niwati is an open sea port exposed to the south-west winds and has no landing facility.

Jaygad is a safe port for the purpose of navigation, where steamers can anchor very close to the sea-shore. At the Purnagad port, steamers have to anchor far away from the sea-shore, as there is a sandy bar at the entrance of this port which makes it inconvenient for navigation. Steamers call at Purnagad and Varoda thrice a week.. These ports do not provide any landing facility.

The chief articles imported in the ports enumerated above are; Mangalore tiles from Mangalore; cement from Jamnagar and Porbundar; salt from Mora and Karanja; oils from Bombay; dry fish from Kolaba district; and wheat, jowar, pulses, etc. from Bombay.

The chief articles exported from these ports are; mangoes, myrobalans, bamboos, cocoanuts, silica sand, fish manure, dry fish, etc.

The description of ports detailed above brings out the essential drawbacks of the coastal transport system of the district. Though gifted with numerous ports, the district suffers heavily due to the lack of proper and adequate anchorage, landing facilities, etc. This situation is further aggravated by a lack of co-ordination in the road transport system. It is only now that development plans for providing better coastal facilities and road communications to the district are in the offing and that a prosperous economy based on a well-knit system of transport and communications can be forecasted.

STATE TRANSPORT

With a view to re-organising the motor transport system, the then Government of Bombay decided to nationalise the transport industry in the State by setting up a Statutory Public Corporation known as "The Bombay State Road Transport Corporation".

This decision was the result of the chaotic conditions which prevailed during the inter-war period, when apparently the transport system seemed to have developed in respect of area served by the system, road mileage, number of vehicles plying, etc. However, in reality unhealthy competition between the private operators of bus services was cutting through the whole apparatus. Motor buses were cheaply available. This, coupled with high rate of profits, freedom of entry into business and absence of regulations, attracted a large number of enterprising people owning a bus or two. To attract greater patronage rates were often reduced so much that they just covered the operating expenses. On the other hand, passenger amenities such as good seating accommodation, well-ventilated buses, waiting rooms, drinking water facilities, canteens, etc., were hardly available. This state of affairs improved considerably with the passing of the Motor Vehicles Act of 1939. But if public interest was to be safeguarded against private competition, the management must not be vested in private hands but in a public body devoid of a selfish motive. This was realised only after Independence, and hence, road transport was nationalised in 1949. Subsequently, a divisional office was established at Ratnagiri.

CHAPTER 9.
Transport and Communications.
State Transport.
Statistics of Routes.

The table given below gives various routes in operation, route mileage and the average number of passengers travelled per day by different routes :—

TABLE 5.

ROUTES, ROUTE MILEAGE, NUMBER OF TRIPS AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF PASSENGERS TRAVELLED IN RATNAGIRI DIVISION.

Serial No.	Name of Route.	Route Mileage.	Number of Trips		Average number of passengers travelled per trip.
			Up.	Down.	
1	Sawantwadi-Vengurla (via. Math) ..	16	5	5	27
2	Sawantwadi-Vengurla (via- Tulas) ..	10	3	3	28
3	Sawantwadi-Ajra	40	1	1	51
4	Sawantwadi-Shiroda	16	4	4	31
5	Vengurla-Kudal	13	4	4	19
6	Sawantwadi-Aronda	17	3	3	32
7	Vengurla-Shiroda	11	3	3	22
8	Sawantwadi-Mangaon	8	2	2	20
9	Sawantwadi-Satarda	17	2	2	10
10	Sawantwadi-Banda	8	7	7	27
11	Sawantwadi-Malvan	45	2	2	51
12	Sawantwadi-Dukanwad ..	18	3	3	36
13	Sawantwadi-Danoli	8	1	1	19
14	Sawantwadi-Belgaum	62	2	2	43
15	Sawantwadi-Kolhapur	100	1	1	94
16	Vengurla-Belgaum	78	1	1	63
17	Sawantwadi-Walawal	19	1	1	47
18	Sawantwadi-Kadaval	23	1	1	57
19	Banda-Vengurla	24	1	1	67
20	Sawantwadi-Amboli	20	1	1	30
21	Banda-Bhedshi	23	1	1	72
22	Banda-Bhedshi	16	1	1	30
23	Vijayadurg-Kharepatan ..	43	1	1	49
24	Vijayadurg-Wadtar	17	1	1	54
25	Vijayadurg-Tarole	33	1	1	86
26	Vijayadurg-Kolhapur	109	1	1	96

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of Route.	Route Mileage	Number of Trips.		Average number of passengers travelled per trip.
			Up.	Down.	
27	Malvan-Ratnagiri	120	1	1	127
28	Malvan-Belgaum	107	1	1	103
29	Malvan-Kolhapur	96	2	2	52
30	Malvan-Satarda	61	1	1	106
31	Malvan-Nerurpur	14	2	2	21
32	Malvan-Niwati Bundar	41	1	1	84
33	Malvan-Vengurla	45	1	1	69
34	Malvan-Kankavli	30	1	1	60
35	Deogad-Kankavli	42	2	2	52
36	Deogad-Kankavli (via Harkul) ..	50	1	1	82
37	Deogad-Mithbav	20	2	2	49
38	Deogad-Ratnagiri	96	1	1	123
39	Deogad-Kolhapur	88	1	1	94
40	Kankavli-Satarda	50	1	1	88
41	Kankavli-Kolhapur	66	1	1	[illegible]
42	Kankavli-Phonda	10	1	1	11
43	Ratnagiri-Bombay	241	2	2	74
44	Ratnagiri-Mahad	120	1	1	153
45	Ratnagiri-Kolhapur	82	3	3	86
46	Ratnagiri-Ganapatipule ..	30	1	1	52
47	Ratnagiri-Jaygad	48	1	1	56
48	Ratnagiri-Rajapur	46	1	1	61
49	Rajapur-Kankavli	44	1	1	78
50	Ratnagiri-Harcheri	30	1	1	52
51	Ratnagiri Prabhanvalli ..	41	1	1	48
52	Ratnagiri-Sawantwadi	123	1	1	154
53	Deorukh-Bombay	242	1	1	49
54	Deorukh-Sakharpa	10	2	2	20
55	Deorukh-Sangameshwar ..	10	2	2	25
56	Deorukh-Makhjan (Single trip) ..	27	1	....	62
57	Makhjan-Shakharapa (Single trip) ..	37	....	1	92
58	Deorukh-Kardunda	14	1	1	38
59	Sakharpa-Sangameshwar ..	20	1	....	64

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

STATE TRANSPORT. Statistics of Routes.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of Route.	Route Mileage.	Number of Trips. Up.	Number of Trips. Down.	Average number of passengers travelled per trip.
60	Deorukh-Ratnagiri	40	1	1	48
61	Chiplun-Bombay	203	2	2	53
62	Chiplun-Ratnagiri	60	1	1	66
63	Chiplun-Ratnagiri (via. Makhjan) ..	70	1	1	119
64	Chiplun-Karad	60	2	2	79
65	Chiplun-Harnai	50	2	2	82
66	Chiplun-Guhagar	27	2	2	61
67	Chiplun-Veldur	35	1	1	68
68	Guhagar-Veldur	8	1	1	53
69	Guhagar-Hedvi	14	2	2	36
70	Guhagar-Abloli	18	1	1	32
71	Chiplun-Govalkot	4	2	2	23
72	Chiplun-Makhjan	23	1	1	33
73	Chiplun-Kapra	12	1	1	25
74	Chiplun-Vahal	19	1	1	39
75	Dapoli-Mahad-Bombay	174	1	1	54
76	Dapoli-Khed	17	1	1	25
77	Dapoli-Harnai	9	2	2	18
78	Dapoli-Dabhol (via. Kolthara) ..	30	1	...	52
79	Dabhol-Kolthare	9	1	1	24
80	Dapoli-Dabhol	18	1	2	21
81	Dapoli-Burondi	5	2	2	28
82	Burondi-Harnai	15	1	1	46
83	Harnai-Khed	26	1	1	75
*84	Ratnagiri-Sakhartar	4	10	10	24
*85	Ratnagiri-Mirya Bundar ..	4	5	5	19
*86	Ratnagiri-Kajarghati	3	3	3	31
*87	Ratnagiri-Mazgaon	6	3	3	36
*88	Ratnagiri-Shivajinagar	2	4	4	20
*89	Shivajinagar-Mandvi	3	2	2	22
*90	Ratnagiri-Partavne	1	1	1	6
*91	Ratnagiri-Petkilla	2	1	1	6

* These routes are operated for city service in Ratnagiri town.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

STATE TRANSPORT. Statistics of Routes.

The following table describes the net work of routes by indicating the number of routes emanating from each station :—

TABLE No. 6.

NUMBER OF ROUTES EMANATING FROM EACH STATION IN RATNAGIRI DIVISION.

Serial No.	Name of Station	Number of routes.
1.	Sawantwadi	16
2.	Ratnagiri	17*
3.	Vengurla	3
4.	Banda	3
5.	Vijayadurg	1
6.	Malvan	8
7.	Deogad	5
8.	Deorukh	6
9.	Kankavli	3
10.	Rajapur	1
11.	Makhjan	1
12.	Sakharpa	1
13.	Chiplun	11
14.	Guhagar	3
15.	Dapoli	6
16.	Dabhol	1
17.	Burondi	1
18.	Harnai	1

Depots and Garages.

The Corporation maintains, at various important places in the division, depots and garages equipped with workshops to carry out routine maintenance and service of vehicles. On 28th of February 1955, the division had three depots with workshops one each at Ratnagiri, Chiplun and Sawantwadi. The division had at the same time five garages one each at Deorukh, Dapoli, Deogad, Malvan and Vijayadurg. There were bus stations at Ratnagiri, Chiplun, Sawantwadi, Dapoli Deorukh, Deogad, Malvan and Vijayadurg; and bus stands at Sangameshwar, Banda, Khed, Guhagar, Shiroda, Vengurla, Rajapur, Sakharpa and Harnai. Ratnagiri, Chiplun, Khed, Dapoli, Guhagar, Deorukh, Vijayadurg, Sawantwadi, Deogad, Malvan, Shiroda, Banda, Vengurla, Rajapur, Sakharpa, Harnai and Sangameshwar were served by booking offices. The facility of waiting rooms was provided at Sawantwadi, Malvan, Kudal, Vengurla, Shiroda, Banda, Aronda, Deogad, Ganapatipule, Vijayadurg, Phonda, Sakharpa, Deorukh, Rajapur, Pali, Ratnagiri, Sangameshwar, Chiplun, Guhagar, Khed, Dapoli, Harnai, Lanje and Kankavli.

*This includes the six routes of city service in Ratnagiri town.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

STATE TRANSPORT. Passenger Amenities.

Considerable amenities are provided to passengers such as well-ventilated, spacious and upholstered buses, waiting rooms, canteens, drinking water, cloakroom, lavatory, etc., at important stations. Special buses are provided on important occasions like fairs, *melas*, etc. The Corporation also provides casual contract service at reasonable rates. Every attempt is made to regulate speed and to keep to the scheduled arrival and departure timings. In case of break-downs, relief buses are immediately run. Sheds and stands are provided at important places. Every bus is equipped with a first-aid box.

Fares.

The present rate of 5 nP. per mile is arrived at, on the basis of the Corporation's operations throughout the State. However, in practice, rates are charged on the basis of number of stages travelled, a stage consisting of four miles. The minimum fare is prescribed at 20 nP. Half rates, subject to the minimum of 10 nP., are charged for children above 3 years and below 12 years.

Staff.

The administrative staff includes the Divisional Controller, Divisional Statistician, Divisional Auditor, Labour Officer and other staff working directly under them. The staff concerned with traffic consists of the Divisional Traffic Officer, Assistant Traffic Superintendent, Traffic Inspectors, Fuel Inspectors, Traffic Controllers, Drivers, Conductors, Porters and Watermen. Under the workshop staff come the Divisional Mechanical Engineer, Divisional Works Superintendent, Assistant works Superintendent, etc.

Method of recruitment.

Divisional Selection Committee is appointed for selection of staff having a basic pay up to Rs. 100 per month. This Committee consists of (1) a member of the State Road Transport Corporation who is *ex-officio* the chairman; (2) the Divisional Controller; (3) the District Superintendent of Police and (4) the Divisional Traffic Officer. As far as possible, the employees of the ex-operators are employed. In their case, the Committee may waive the minimum requirements subject to the approval of the Corporation.

Central Selection Committee for the State has been appointed to fill the posts carrying a monthly salary of above Rs. 100 and below Rs. 200. It consists of four members three of whom are members of the Corporation Board and the fourth is the Deputy General Manager (Engineering). One of the members of the Corporation Board acts as the Chairman. For filling the posts of the status of Class I and Class II officers with a minimum salary of Rs. 200 and above per month, a Service Board consisting of the members of the Corporation is set up.

Welfare Activities.

Welfare of the workers is also looked after. Rest-rooms have been provided to workers at Ratnagiri and Sawantwadi depots. Clubs have been started at all the units in the division and are provided with sports material such as volley-ball sets and carrom boards. A daily newspaper is also supplied to all the units by the Corporation.

STATE TRANSPORT. Welfare Activities.

There is a workers' union called "State Transport Workers Union, Ratnagiri". It is registered and affiliated to the Indian National Trade Union Congress. The branch offices of the Union are located at Chiplun, Dapoli, Sawantwadi, Deorukh, Deogad, Malvan and Vijayadurg. It has a membership of 508 workers on its roll. Relations between the workers' union and management in the division are very cordial.

Goods Transport.

The division also undertakes goods transport on a small scale. At the end of February 1955, 21 trucks were attached to the division, which handled 387·6 tons during the month, out of which rice, paddy and other grains accounted for 286·5 tons.

The commodities handled were sent both within and outside the district.

BUNGALOWS AND REST-HOUSES.

The Government of Maharashtra maintains inspection bungalows, district bungalows and other departmental bungalows such as forest department bungalows etc., which are mainly intended for lodging Government officers on official tours. Some of them are also open to the public, although preference is generally given to the Government servants. A nominal charge is levied on the lodger to cover the maintenance costs. These bungalows are usually equipped with furniture, crockery, etc. At some of these bungalows cooks are also available. In addition to these, there are public rest-houses or what are known as *dharmashalas*, built by individuals out of philanthropic motive.

In Ratnagiri district there are 19 inspection bungalows, one each at Akeri, Amba, Amboli, Chiplun, Deogad, Deorukh, Kasal, Kashedi, Kharepatan, Khed, Kudal, Pali, Phonda, Rajapur, Ratnagiri, Sakharpa, Sangameshwar, Sawantwadi and Vengurla.

There are six travellers' bungalows located at Amboli, Banda, Bhedshi, Ramghat, Sawantwadi and Vengurla.

District bungalows are located at Dapoli, Guhagar, Harnai, Jaygad, Malvan and Vijayadurg.

Bungalows under District Local Board are at Bankot, Harnai, Kankavli, Malvan, Mhapral, Oni and Waghotan.

Municipal bungalows are at Ratnagiri, Khed (two bungalows) and Vengurla.

POST OFFICES.

The Post and Telegraph Department maintained 365 offices with a head office at Ratnagiri. The taluka-wise list of post offices given in the accompanying statement reveals that Ratnagiri taluka has the largest number of them *viz.*, 57, while Lanje peta has the lowest number *viz.*, 6. The postal facilities thus made available are meagre and much remains to be done, as the ratio of Post Offices to the total number of villages and towns is about 1:4·3.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

POST OFFICES.

The following table gives the number of post offices of various categories in the talukas of Ratnagiri district :—

TABLE No. 7.

TALUKA-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF POST OFFICES IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT IN 1958.

Name of Taluka or Peta.	Number of H. O.*	Number of S. O.*	Number of B. O.*	Total.
1 Chiplun	....	4	33	37
2. Dapoli	....	6	20	26
3. Devgad	....	4	28	32
4. Guhagar	....	1	9	10
5. Kankavli	....	3	32	35
6. Kudal	....	1	18	19
7. Khed	....	1	19	20
8. Lanje .. .	....	1	5	6
9. Malvan	....	4	29	33
10. Mandangad	....	5	2	7
11. Ratnagiri	1	6	50	57
12. Rajapur	....	2	11	13
13. Sangameshwar ..	....	6	17	23
14. Sawantwadi ..	....	4	23	27
15. Vengurla	....	4	16	20
Total ..	1	52	312	365

*H. O.—Head Office, S. O.—Sub-Office, B. O.—Branch Office.

Telephone System.

There is only one telephone exchange in the district at Ratnagiri. The connections and extensions, as on 30th June 1958, numbered 80 and 14 respectively. The exchange is of the Central Battery Multiple type and has a capacity of working 110 lines.

There are Public Call Offices at the following places in the district. The respective dates of their commencement are given against each of them :—

1. Chiplun .. 14th June 1954.
2. Khed .. 14th October 1955.
3. Sawantwadi .. 7th June 1956.
4. Vengurla .. 8th June 1956.
5. Malvan .. 9th June 1956.
6. Ratnagiri (Local) .. N.A.

CHAPTER 9.

Transport and Communications.

POST OFFICES. Telephone System.

A proposal to lay out telephone exchanges at Chiplun, Malvan, Sawantwadi, and Vengurla was approved in December 1958. Similarly, the Public Call Offices at Sangameshwar, Rajapur, Lanje, Kudal and Sakharpa were also sanctioned.

The following is the description of the trunk line alignments passing through the district :—

1. Trunk alignment carrying one trunk from Kolhapur to Ratnagiri *via* Malkapur and Sakharpa.

2. Trunk line carrying one trunk from Chiplun to Panvel *via* Khed and Poladpur.

3. Trunk line carrying one trunk from Belgaum to Malvan *via* Sawantwadi and Vengurla.

4. Trunk line carrying one trunk from Vengurla to Shiroda.

5. Trunk line carrying one trunk from Vengurla to Kudal.

CHAPTER 10—MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous occupations.

INTRODUCTION.

THE FOREGOING CHAPTERS HAVE DESCRIBED IN DETAIL the principal sectors of the economy such as agriculture, industry, trade and transport of the district and about the population engaged in them. A large number of the working population is still left unaccounted. It is the purpose of this chapter to describe briefly the remaining sectors covering population engaged in public administration; professions like law, medicine, education, religion and fine arts; domestic services and in occupations like tailoring, canning of fruits, goldsmithy, hotel-keeping, laundering, hair-cutting, and confectionery. These occupations provide employment to a large number of persons, most of whom produce goods of daily consumption or render useful service in manifold ways to different persons. The following table puts down employment, as enumerated by the Censuses of 1911, 1921, 1931 and 1951, in a few occupations in the district :—

TABLE No. 1.

THE NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS IN 1911, 1921, 1931 AND 1951 IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

Name of the Occupation.	1911	1921	1931	1951
Manufacture of aerated and mineral waters and ice.	22	6	13	165
Rice pounders and huskers and flour grinders.	1,120	119	147	169
Grain parchers etc.	155	30	19	..
Sweetmeat and condiment makers ..	154	3	58	105
Tailors, milliners, dress-makers and darners	517	505	678	1,421
Embroiders, hat-makers and makers of other articles of wear.	15	554	38	..
Washing and cleaning	638	520	339	293
Barbers, hair dressers and wig makers ..	1,950	1,636	1,667	1,512
Makers of jewellery and ornaments ..	..	2,407	2,197	..
Dealers in sweetmeats, sugar and spices ..	1	78	69	105
Dealers in dairy products	53	301	278	96
Hotels, cafes, etc.	856	1,491	1,125	3,450

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous occupations.
INTRODUCTION

A sample survey of such occupations was taken in the two towns, Ratnagiri and Chiplun. The information regarding the establishments, their location and persons engaged in them was obtained from the respective municipalities in 1958. Representative samples of every size and type were selected from different localities of these two towns. A general questionnaire was framed. The information contained in the chapter is based on the replies received from the selected establishments.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

The number of persons engaged in public administration is quite large and includes persons working as police and village watchmen; officers of government, municipalities and other local bodies; and village officials and servants.

The Censuses of 1911, 1931 and 1951 followed more or less the same classification under the head, Public Administration. The total number of persons under the heads Police Services of the State, Services of Indian and Foreign States, Municipal and other Local (not village) Services, village officials and servants including village watchmen was 4,604 including 47 women in 1911. In 1931, this number was reduced to 4,226 including 114 women. In 1951, it increased to 8,456[1] including 659 women.

The following table gives the total number of persons under these heads in 1911, 1931 and 1951.

TABLE No. 2.

THE NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN POLICE SERVICES OF THE STATE, MUNICIPAL AND OTHER LOCAL SERVICES, ETC. IN 1911, 1931 AND 1951.

Name of service.	1911		1931		1951	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1. Police	1,243	..	964	..	1,642	78
2. Services of the State ..	2,322	3	2,061	10	3,225	83
3. Services of Indian and Foreign States.	36	..	..	..	1,138	279
4. Municipal and other Local (not village) services.	325	21	200	57	1,195	196
5. Village Officials and servants including village watchmen.	631	23	887	77	597	23
Total ..	4,557	47	4,112	114	7,797	659
Grand total (Male+Female) ..	4,604		4,226		8,456	

[1]Sawantwadi, the former Indian State, was merged with this district in 1949. This number includes persons employed in Sawantwadi.

CHAPTER 18.

Miscellaneous occupations.

BAKERIES.

THE TWO TOWNS HAD 15 BAKERIES, of which 11 were in Chiplun located mostly in ward No. VII and Ratnagiri had four situated in ward Nos. III and IV. The total employment in them, both at Chiplun and Ratnagiri was 31, out of whom nine were paid employees. Two bakeries, one started in 1952 and the other in 1956, were selected for survey in Chiplun. One was a seasonal establishment while the other was perennial. The capital for starting them was raised by the owners from their own resources.

They baked breads, biscuits, toasts, and *nankatais*. Their equipment consisted of large wooden tables to prepare dough, an oven, and accessories and equipment such as tin trays, small iron sheet boxes to bake breads, long iron bars, moulds, biscuit presses, and furniture like cup-boards etc. The cost of equipment of these two shops was Rs. 3,000 and Rs. 4,000 respectively. They spent Rs. 100 to Rs. 150 annually on repairs of equipment. The capital investment of one shop was about Rs. 9,000 and of the other about Rs. 4,000. The use of modern machinery was entirely absent and most of the work was done by hand by persons who had acquired the necessary skill through experience.

One establishment was situated in rented premises, the rent being Rs. 35 per month. The other was housed in the owned permises. They spent about Rs. 7-8-0 on electricity per month. One establishment was paying Rs. 12 as municipal tax per month.

The raw materials which are used for the manufacture of bread are wheat-flour, sugar, yeast, hydrogenated vegetable oil and fuel. One establishment consumed 25 bags of wheat flour and two bags of sugar and about 300 lbs. of hydrogenated oil per month. The other consumed about eight bags of wheat flour and 90 lbs. of hydrogenated oil. The shops were managed by the owners with the help of paid servants. The total wage bill of the establishments was Rs. 300 and Rs. 120 per month, respectively.

The prices of loaves of bread, butter-biscuits and toasts produced in them were as follows. Twelve loaves of bread were sold at, from annas eight to annas nine. A dozen of butter-biscuits was sold at annas two and toasts at from annas five to annas eight; pound of biscuits was sold at from annas twelve to one rupee. These articles were sold directly to all customers. Sales were more or less normal throughout the year. The profit margin in both the bakeries was considerable.

BOARDING HOUSES.

THERE WERE 20 BOARDING HOUSES in the two towns. They were located in ward No. X in Chiplun and ward Nos. II, III and IV in Ratnagiri. The total employment in them, both at Chiplun and Ratnagiri was 189, out of whom 136 including four females and 38 children were paid employees and 53 including nine children and six females were owners and their family members. Six samples, three in Chiplun and three in Ratnagiri were chosen but only three establishments in Ratnagiri furnished the necessary information.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous occupations.

BOARDING HOUSES.

These establishments in the sample were started in 1938, 1947 and 1950 respectively and provided employment throughout the year to the owners, who raised the initial capital from their own resources. The value of the equipment, which mostly consisted of utensils required for cooking and furniture varied from Rs. 5,500 to Rs. 10,000 per shop. Each establishment spent between Rs. 70 and Rs. 250 per year on repairs of furniture or on purchase of new utensils. The articles remained serviceable for a period of between 10 and 15 years. The total capital invested in them was between Rs. 300 and Rs. 8,000.

Two establishments were situated in rented premises and one was housed in owned premises. Rent paid by them was Rs. 60 and Rs. 75 per month, respectively. They spent Rs. 40 and Rs. 25 respectively per month on electricity and paid Rs. 11 and Rs. 14 respectively per year as municipal licence fee or tax. One of them spent Rs. 25 as water charges. The third one did not spend either on electricity, or on water but paid Rs. 10 per year as hotel tax. One establishment spent Rs. 100 per year on advertisement. One of them was managed by the owner and the other two had 28 employees. They were paid between Rs. 15 and Rs. 30 each per month as wages. In addition to wages, each was served two meals a day.

These establishments in the sample were vegetarian and served meals and rice plates to customers. The value of raw materials consumed by them was between Rs. 100 and Rs. 3,500 per month. The establishment with a bigger size charged eight annas for an ordinary rice plate, twelve annas for a special rice plate and one rupee for a meal. Rates for a regular customer varied between Rs. 30 and Rs. 35 per month.

These establishments served local people as well as those who visited Ratnagiri town. Their business was brisk during April and May. The margin of profit they made was just enough to maintain them. One of the establishments was running at a loss. They complained that the rise in prices of commodities and lack of sufficient rice quota have reduced their profit margin. Lack of capital was another hurdle in the way of further development of business.

CYCLE-REPAIRING.

THERE WERE 15 ESTABLISHMENTS DEALING IN BICYCLE REPAIRING in the two towns. Of the eight in Ratnagiri, four were located in ward No. IV, two in ward No. III and one each in ward Nos. II and V. In Chiplun, five were located in ward No. VII and two in ward No. II. The total employment in these establishments both at Chiplun and Ratnagiri was 31, out of whom only three were paid employees. The establishments in Chiplun were managed by owners with the help of their family members. In Ratnagiri, most of the shops were managed by owners with the help of their family members. Only three paid employees were engaged in the eight shops situated in Ratnagiri. Six shops, three each in the respective towns were selected. However only three from Ratnagiri furnished the

Miscellaneous occupations.

BICYCLE-REPAIRING.

necessary information. The establishments surveyed had bicycle-repairing as the principal occupation which provided employment to their owners throughout the year. Two of them raised the initial capital from their own resources. One of them borrowed the same from a local bank. No new bicycles were kept in these shops for sale. The total capital investment in them varied from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 4,000. The small establishment invested about Rs. 2,000. The circulating capital per establishment varied from Rs. 1,200 to Rs. 3,000 They had equipment worth Rs. 200, Rs. 250 and Rs. 300 respectively.

These establishments were situated in rented premises. One of them paid Rs. 25, the other Rs. 20 and the third Rs. 13 as rent per month. Two of them paid Rs. 5 each and the other Rs. 8 on electricity per month. They paid a total of Rs. 34 as municipal tax per year. Expenditure on other items like advertisement was negligible. One shop was exclusively managed by the onwer. Two others had three paid employees, each of whom was paid between Rs. 30 and Rs. 35 per month, as wages.

The income of these establishments was not very large and the profit margin was just enough to maintain them. It varied between Rs. 50 and Rs. 100 per month. In addition to the work of repairing, they had a few bicycles which they gave on hire. They also sold equipment required for bicycles. But the sale of the articles like tubes, tyres, etc. was not considerable. The total number of bicycles in the two towns was hardly 440 to the population of 42,929 persons. There was on an average one bicycle for 11 houses. Lack of capital for expansion of business, lack of sufficient quota of tubes and tyres were some of the difficulties experienced by these shops.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS AND PROFESSORS IN 1911 was 947 including 20 women. Twenty years later the same increased to 1831 including 104 women. The number of professors, lecturers and research workers; teachers; and servants of educational institutions in 1951 was 51; 4,793 (including 507 women) and 377 (including 83 women) respectively. In 1957, there was one Arts and Science college at Ratnagiri; four training colleges for primary teachers, one each at Ratnagiri, Mithabao, Rajapur and Malvan; and two technical schools, one at Ratnagiri and the other at Sawantwadi.

There were 14 middle schools and 38 high schools in the district. Of the total number of high schools, 16 were located in the municipal areas and 22 in the rural areas. The total number of primary schools was 2,328, of which four were run by Government, 2,099 by the District Local Board and municipalities and 225 by private agencies. The number of primary schools located in municipal areas was 77.

The number of teachers employed in the secondary schools was 499 including 58 women. The number of teachers employed in middle schools was 38 including two women. The minimum essential

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous occupations.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

qualifications required for secondary teachers are B.A. or B.Sc., with S.T.C., T.D. or B.T. The basic scale of a trained graduate teacher in secondary schools is uniform throughout the district. The basic scale of each category is given below. The scale of a matric or S.S.C. with S.T.C. or T.D. is Rs. 56–2–80–E.B.–4–120 with dearness allowance. A graduate with S.T.C. or T.D. is employed on a scale of Rs. 74–4–114–E.B.–4–130 plus dearness allowance and a graduate with B. T. on Rs. 80–5–130–E.B.–6–160–8–200 plus dearness allowance.

The number of primary teachers employed in the district was 5,795, out of whom 915 were women. At Ratnagiri town, 188 teachers including 61 women were employed in primary schools. The number of teachers employed in primary schools in municipal areas was as follows :—

Names of municipal Area.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1. Chiplun ..	38	34	72
2. Khed ..	22	15	37
3. Malvan ..	26	44	70
4. Rajapur ..	23	21	44
5. Ratnagiri ..	57	61	118
6. Vengurla ..	26	31	57
7. Sawantwadi ..	21	23	44
Total ..	213	229	442

A person who has passed Primary School Certificate examination and obtained 40 per cent. marks in it is qualified to become a primary teacher. The basic scale of a teacher in a primary school is uniform throughout the district. He is paid dearness allowance in addition to the pay. No city allowance is paid to teachers employed in schools in municipal areas. The scale is Rs. 40–1–50–E.B.–1½–65 with selection grade of Rs. 65–2½–90 plus dearness allowance. The basic scale of an untrained teacher is 35–1–40 plus dearness allowance. There was one recognised association of primary teachers, *viz.*, "Ratnagiri District Primary Teachers' Association", and one of secondary school teachers, *viz.*, "Ratnagiri District Secondary School Teachers' Association".

Besides these schools, there were three music schools, three pre-primary schools and two gymnasia. The total number of staff employed in them was 14.

There were two technical schools, one at Ratnagiri and the other at Sawantwadi. They were run by Government. Courses in elements of engineering, auto-apprenticeship and motor mechanics, mechanical apprenticeship and motor body-building, electrical installation, wireman apprenticeship, etc., are taught in these schools. The total strength of staff in them was 27.

FLOUR MILLING.

THE NUMBER OF FLOUR MILLS IN TWO TOWNS was 20, out of which 14, were at Chiplun and 6 at Ratnagiri. At Chiplun most of the mills were located in Ward Nos. III, V, VI, VII and only one each in ward Nos. I and VIII and at Ratnagiri one each in ward Nos. I, IV, V, VI and two in Ward No. II. The total employment in these establishments at both the places was 66, including 30 male paid employees; two children paid employees and one woman paid employee; 33 owners had their family members to help them. Three flour mills in Chiplun were selected to serve as samples in the survey. All of them were started between 1951 and 1954.

Flour milling was the main occupation of one establishment and subsidiary of the two others whose main occupation was dealing in cloth and grains. One of the establishments borrowed the initial capital required for starting the establishment. Two others raised it from their own resources.

All these establishments consumed electricity. They had electric motors, varying from 7½ H.P. to 10 H.P., grinding stones and other minor tools. In addition to these tools, one was having a huller for dehusking paddy. The cost of equipment in each shop varied from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 3,000. Each shop spent Rs. 150 to Rs. 200 on repairs or replacements. Capital investment in each shop varied from Rs. 2,200 to Rs. 3,500.

Two shops were situated in rented premises. One was paying Rs. 60 and the other Rs. 200 per year as rent. The third was situated in owned premises. Their bill on electricity per month was between Rs. 60 and Rs. 125. Each establishment was managed by the owner with the help of an employee, who was employed on fixed wages of Rs. 50 per month. The establishments had a working day of eight hours. They worked from 8 a.m. to 12 noon and 2 p.m. to 6 p.m.

Business was more or less continuous throughout the year. They served the local people as well as those from nearby villages which provided them with good business. The margin of profit in this business was therefore considerable.

GOLDSMITHY.

THERE WERE 37 ESTABLISHMENTS OF GOLDSMITHS AND JEWELLERS in Chiplun and 10 in Ratnagiri. Most of them at Chiplun were located in Ward No. VII and at Ratnagiri in Ward Nos. III and IV. The total employment in them at both the places was 98, out of whom 15 were paid employees and the remaining 83 including

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous occupations.

GOLDSMITHY.

three children were owners and their family members. Three establishments at Chiplun and two at Ratnagiri were selected for survey. The samples at Chiplun did not furnish the necessary information.

The shops surveyed at Ratnagiri were started in 1944 and in 1945. Goldsmithy was their principal occupation which provided employment throughout the year. They raised the initial capital from their resources. They manufactured gold and silver ornaments.

Tools and equipment were those required for making gold and silver ornaments. Each establishment had anvil, hammers, bellows, pincers, pots and crucibles, moulds, nails and other tools required for preparing ornaments. In addition to these tools, they had some furniture also. The total cost of equipment in each shop varied from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000.

The two establishments in the sample were located in rented premises, and paid Rs. 9 and Rs. 10 each as rent per month. They spent Rs. 8 per month on electricity. There were no paid employees.

Customers from nearby towns and villages placed orders for ornaments, providing them with required gold or silver. In a few cases they purchased raw materials from local *sarafs*. The demand for the work was usually concentrated in the period from October to June.

Business was usually dull in the rainy season, but was quite brisk in summer. The average income of the establishments was just enough to keep them going in the business.

The business of almost all goldsmiths and jewellers in the towns was just enough to maintain their establishments. Lack of capital and improved tools were the main causes leading to the deterioration in business.

HAIR-CUTTING.

THERE WERE 52 HAIR-CUTTING SALOONS in the two towns. Most of the saloons at Chiplun were situated in Ward No. VIII and only three were situated in Ward Nos. III, V and VIII. At Ratnagiri, ten were situated in Ward No. IV, five in Ward No. III, four in Ward No. II and two in Ward No. I. The number of persons employed in these establishments was 90 including 28 paid employees. Six samples were selected in the two towns but only three from Ratnagiri and one from Chiplun furnished the necessary information.

Two of them were started in 1932, the third in 1954 and the fourth in 1956. Owners of three establishments had raised the initial capital from their own resources and the remaining one borrowed a part of it. That was found to have been repaid.

Equipment in these shops mainly consisted of a few pieces of furniture, three to four sets of necessary instruments like razors, machines, brushes, combs, etc., and other toilet requisites. The total

HAIR CUTTING.

value of equipment each shop had, varied between Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000. They spent annually between Rs. 25 and Rs. 50 on repairs and replenishment of these instruments.

The total capital investment in each shop varied from Rs. 800 to Rs. 1,300. All establishments in the sample were situated in rented premises. Rent of each varied from Rs. 10 to Rs. 40 per month. They used electricity for lighting the premises and each spent between Rs. 3 and Rs. 10 per month on it. Besides these items, they paid municipal licence fee which was Rs. 2 per year per establishment.

All the shops were managed by owners with the help of paid servants. Three shops had six paid servants each and one shop had one only. They were employed on fixed wages, which varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 70 per month per employee.

Most of the owners and employees were uneducated. Hair-cutting and shaving was their hereditary occupation which provided them employment throughout the year. Their business was brisk usually on all holidays.

These establishments earned fairly good income which was mostly spent by way of wages to employees. There was paucity of capital which they required often for investment. Scarcity of razors of good quality and cropping machines was the other difficulty felt by these shops.

LAUNDERING.

THESE TWO TOWNS HAD 20 WASHING COMPANIES (11 at Chiplun and nine at Ratnagiri) at the time of survey. Most of them were located in ward Nos. III and VII at Chiplun and III and IV at Ratnagiri. The total employment in them, at both the places was 55, out of whom 13 were paid employees and 42 including two children were employers and their family members. Six establishments, three at Chiplun and three at Ratnagiri, were selected for the survey.

These establishments in the sample were started between 1945 and 1956. Laundering was the main occupation which provided employment to the workers throughout the year. Five of these owners raised the initial capital required for starting establishments from their own resources. One of them from Chiplun had borrowed it. A part of it was paid till 1959. One establishment at Ratnagiri had three irons and three tables for ironing and two cupboards for keeping garments. Two others had one iron each, two tables each, and a few cupboards. The last one had one iron and two ordinary cupboards. At Chiplun one had one iron and four cupboards. The other two had two irons each. The total value of equipment in the six establishments varied from Rs. 200 to Rs. 600 per shop. The total capital investment in them varied from Rs. 400 to Rs. 1,000 per shop.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous occupations.

LAUNDERING.

All establishments surveyed were situated in rented premises, rent of each at Ratnagiri varied from Rs. 14 to Rs. 20 and at Chiplun from Rs. 8 to Rs. 15 per month. Two establishments from Ratnagiri and three from Chiplun used electric energy for lighting and ironing purposes. Their total bill on electricity at Chiplun was Rs. 12 and at Ratnagiri Rs. 5 per month. In addition to electricity charges, two of them each at Ratnagiri and at Chiplun paid Rs. 2 per year as municipal licence fee. Two shops from Ratnagiri and three from Chiplun were managed by the owners with the help of their family members. One of the shops paid Rs. 2-8-0 to employees for washing 100 clothes.

Raw materials required were soap, washing soda, bleaching powder, tinopal and charcoal or wood which was used as fuel. All these articles were purchased from the local market. On an average each shop consumed these raw materials worth Rs. 60 per month. The margin of profit in the business was not very high. It was just enough to maintain them. Their business was brisk during summer and winter only.

LEGAL PROFESSION.

DURING THE LAST 58 YEARS, THE NUMBER OF PERSONS following this profession has been increasing in the district. This profession includes lawyers, their clerks and petition writers. In 1911, the number of lawyers in the district was 111 while clerks and petition writers numbered 74. In 1931 these figures were 146 and 55, respectively. In 1951, the number of lawyers increased to 158 including two women and that of petition writers and clerks to 142 including four women. In the beginning of 1957, there were 141 lawyers only one of whom was an advocate. Of these 24 were at Ratnagiri and 24 at Chiplun, nine at Dapoli and nine at Deorukh, seven at Khed, 10 at Rajapur and 10 at Kankavli, six at Deogad, 13 at Malvan and 13 at Sawantwadi, 12 at Vengurla and four at Kudal.

There were 14 Courts in the district then. Of these one was a District and Sessions Court, one a court of the Civil Judge, one a Court of the Judicial Magistrate and 11 others were Courts of Civil Judges and Judicial Magistrates.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS.

PERSONS INCLUDED IN THIS CATEGORY ARE authors, journalists, sculptors, architects, photographers, musicians, actors, dancers, etc. In 1881, the number of persons engaged in this category including persons engaged in literature, art, music, drama, education and science was 1068. The total number of persons engaged in 1931, as public scribes, stenographers, engineers, artists, sculptors, musicians, editors, journalists, photographers, horoscope-writers, fortune-tellers, conjurers, acrobats, managers and employees of public entertainment was 491 persons including 77 women. The census of 1951 recorded 36 persons as artists, sculptors and image makers; six persons as journalists, authors and editors; 25 persons as photographers and 25 persons as astrologers.

CHAPTER 16.

Miscellaneous occupations.

LODGING AND BOARDING HOUSES.

THERE WERE NINE LODGING AND BOARDING ESTABLISHMENTS in the two towns. Of the six at Ratnagiri, four were situated in ward No. II and one each in ward No. I and III. The total employment in them at both the places was 47, out of whom 19 including four females were paid employees. Only two samples were chosen from Ratnagiri for the purpose of conducting the survey.

They were started in 1950 and 1954, respectively. Owners used their own resources as initial capital. They had equipment like cots, tables, chairs and utensils for cooking, etc., worth Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 3,000 respectively. Capital investment in them was about Rs. 8,000 each. They were situated in rented premises. Rent of one was Rs. 55 per month and of the other Rs. 150 per month. Their monthly bill on electricity was Rs. 30 and Rs. 35 each and on water was Rs. 90 and Rs. 150 each per year. They spent each about Rs. 50 and Rs. 72 per year on advertisement. Each consumed raw materials worth Rs. 150 and Rs. 400 per month. The total employment in them was 14, out of whom six were paid employees. Employees were paid between Rs. 25 and Rs. 30 each per month. In addition to wages, each was served two meals a day.

The difficulties experienced by these establishments were more or less the same as experienced by restaurants, tea shops and boarding houses. Their business was brisk in summer. The margin of profit in them was not very high.

MEDICAL PROFESSION.

IN THIS DISTRICT IN 1911, THERE WERE 126, medical practitioners including four women and 64 midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, masseurs, etc., including 29 women. The total number of registered medical practitioners in 1931 was 94 including eight women and other persons practising healing arts without being registered numbered 142 including nine women. There was no dentist. The number of midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, masseurs was 85 including 47 women. In 1951, there were 71 compounders including two women; four dentists; 189 registered medical practitioners; 171 *vaids* and *hakims* including 9 women and 14 midwives.

PERSONS LIVING ON UNEARNED INCOME.

THESE PERSONS DERIVE THEIR income from rent of agricultural land and from property other than agricultural land, such as rent from houses, dividends on investments, or from pensions or funds. There were two classes of persons living on unearned income, as recorded in the census of 1911. The number of persons in the first group was 10,394 and those who supplemented this income by following other occupations were 2,651. In 1931, the number of persons getting income only from rent of agricultural land was 9,166 and those who supplemented this income by following other occupations were 2,485. Persons who lived on income from other kinds of property was 1,901, while those who supplemented this income by following other means of livelihood numbered 703. The 1951 census recorded 26,449 as persons living on agricultural

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous occupations.

rent, of whom 3,685 had secondary means of livelihood. Persons living on pensions, scholarships, doles, begging, grants, and unproductive activities were 2,929.

Religious Services.

RELIGIOUS SERVICE HAS BEEN A FULL TIME OCCUPATION and a main source of livelihood of some persons in the district. The persons who are placed in this group are priests, ministers of religion, religious mendicants, those engaged in temples and on burning ghats, inmates of monasteries and readers in churches. The number of persons engaged in this group was steadily declining. In 1911, their number was 3,083; in 1921, 2,905; in 1931, 1,732; and in 1951, 1,211. In 1951, there were 426 priests, *sadhus* and religious workers and 785 servants in religious edifices, burial places and burning ghats.

Restaurants and Tea Shops.

THE TOTAL NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS IN THE TWO TOWNS was 104, of which Ratnagiri had 50 and Chiplun 54. At Chiplun, 42 establishments were situated in ward No. VII; and four each in ward Nos. III, V, and VIII. At Ratnagiri, 14 and 10, were situated in ward Nos. IV and II; eight and seven in ward Nos. VIII and VI, six and five in ward Nos. I and V. The total employment in these establishments at both the places was 612 persons of whom 404 including 40 children and two women were paid employees and 208 including 21 children were owners and their family members.

Eighteen samples at Chiplun and Ratnagiri were chosen. Of these only six establishments from Ratnagiri had furnished the necessary information. All establishments were started between 1941 and 1957. Hotel keeping was the principal occupation of the owners of these establishments which provided them employment throughout the year. Five owners raised initial capital from their own resources and the remaining one, partly borrowed and partly raised it from his own resources.

Tools and equipment in these shops consisted of tables, chairs, crockery and utensils required for preparing hot drinks and snacks. An establishment of a big size in the sample had equipment worth Rs. 8,000; of a medium size, worth Rs. 2,500 and of a small unit worth Rs. 800. Capital investment in a big establishment was about Rs. 10,000; and in an establishment of medium size about Rs. 4,000 and in a small establishment, about Rs. 2,200.

All establishments except two, were situated in rented premises, rent of which varied from Rs. 20 to Rs. 200 per month. The biggest establishment in the sample paid Rs. 200 per month as rent. Besides rent, these establishments paid charges on water and electricity. Their total bill on these two items varied from Rs. 60 to Rs. 175 per month. The other two establishments did not pay any water charges. Three of them spent Rs. 30, Rs. 50 and Rs. 7 respectively per month on advertising.

RESTAURANTS AND TEA SHOPS.

These establishments spent between Rs. 150 and Rs. 500 per month on raw materials like tea powder, sugar, milk, edible oil, gram flour, vegetables, etc., which were mostly purchased from the local market. The total employment in these shops was 70 including 56 paid employees. These employees were paid between Rs. 15 and Rs. 50 per month. A cook was paid between Rs. 30 and Rs. 50. In addition to wages, all of them were given two meals a day. They had a working day of eight to nine hours.

Main dishes served were *batata-wadas, bhajis, shev* and *chivada, idali, dosa* or *amboli, misal*, etc. and hot drinks like tea, coffee and cold drinks like soda, lemonade, *piyush* or butter milk. A dish of *batata wada, bhajis*, or *shev and chivada* or *dosa* was sold at two annas and a dish of *idali* at three annas. A cup of tea of 4 ounces was sold at one anna and a special cup of tea at annas two. The net income of these establishments was between Rs. 60 and Rs. 350 per month. Their business was slack during the rainy season and was brisk during festivals. It was reported that they experienced shortage of capital. They also felt that the rate charged per unit of electricity was very high.

TAILORING.

AT THE TIME OF OUR SURVEY, THERE WERE 67 TAILORING SHOPS at Chiplun and 35 at Ratnagiri. Most of the establishments at Chiplun were situated in ward No. VII and only one was situated in ward No. III. At Ratnagiri, 18 were situated in ward No. IV, 12 in ward No. III, and three and two in ward Nos. I and II. The total employment in the establishments at Chiplun was 212, out of whom, 104 were paid employees and 108 were employers and their family members. Of the total employment of 64 persons at Ratnagiri in these establishments, eight were paid employees and 56 including four children were employers and their family members. Six samples at Chiplun and three at Ratnagiri were selected for survey, but only three from Ratnagiri had furnished the necessary information.

One of them was started in 1934, the other in 1950 and the third in 1953. Tailoring was their principal occupation providing them employment throughout the year. One was started by the owner with his own resources, the other two partly borrowed the required capital. The debt was found to have been repaid as the enquiries at the time of survey revealed.

Equipment of these shops usually consisted of sewing machines, pairs of scissors, thread, wooden board, tape and such other tools required for tailoring and ironing purposes and furniture like cupboards, a small table, etc. There were four machines in one establishment, three in the other and two in the remaining one. The cost of a sewing machine varied from Rs. 250 to Rs. 300. The value of equipment in each shop varied from Rs. 600 to Rs. 1,350. The total capital investment in them varied between Rs. 800 to Rs. 1,500.

CHAPTER 10.

Miscellaneous occupations.

TAILORING.

All establishments in the sample were situated in rented premises. One paid Rs. 11, the other Rs. 30 and the third Rs. 40 per month as rent. They used electricity for lighting. Each paid between Rs. 2 and Rs. 5 per month for the use of electricity. Payment of municipal licence fee was nominal, varying between one rupee and three rupees per year.

The three shops employed eight paid employees. Three of them were employed for stitching clothes, two for cutting cloth, one for both and two others for ironing and stitching buttons and making button-holes. They had a working day of seven to eight hours. Employees were engaged on fixed wages. An employee who did cutting and stitching was paid Rs. 90 per month. Others who did stitching only were paid between Rs. 45 and Rs. 50 per month. Employees who stitched buttons and made button-holes were paid Rs. 40 each per month.

Customers served, were generally local. Their business was brisk in winter and summer. They stitched both ladies' and gents' garments. Their income varied from shop to shop and ranged from Rs. 100 to Rs. 400 per establishment per month.

CHAPTER 11–STANDARD OF LIVING.

Standard of living.

INTRODUCTION.

IN THE ABSENCE OF A COMPREHENSIVE AND DETAILED SURVEY of the incomes and pattern of expenditure of various sections of the people residing in different parts of the district, it is almost impossible to present an exact account of their standard of living. Working knowledge of the prevalent standards of living is, however, very useful for economic, social and administrative planning. An attempt has, therefore, been made to indicate the standards of living of different sections of the people staying in rural as well as urban areas. The account is based on tabulated and descriptive information collected by direct contacts with persons concerned, during the course of the survey. While actual observations and indirect checks bear sufficient testimony to the accuracy of the general outlines of the picture so revealed, no statistical accuracy is contemplated or claimed for the findings.

URBAN AREAS.

For the purpose of investigation a household was adopted as the unit of sampling. Taking average annual income of a family as the most convenient and suitable basis of classification, the families in the urban sector were grouped as under :

Group I.–Families with an average annual income of Rs. 3,000 and above.

Group II.–Families with an average annual income ranging from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 3,000.

Group III.–Families with an average annual income of Rs. 1,000 (or even less than that).

GROUP I.–This income group was composed of persons deriving their incomes from professions such as medicine, commerce or law. It was characterised by the excess of income over expenditure. The expenditure of families upon the articles of food remained practically constant even in the face of relatively higher incomes whereas that on items like education, entertainment and the like, which are an index to a better standard of living, absorbed a significant portion of their incomes. Out of 13 families belonging to this group, surveyed in

CHAPTER 11.

Standard of living.

INCOME.

Ratnagiri and Chiplun towns, a great majority consisted of four units * (three adults and two minors). Their estimated average monthly income amounted to Rs. 465 which, besides earnings from the main source (profession) included more often than not, income from household property.

Expenditure.

Scrutiny of expenditure of a family revealed following facts. Expenditure on food was the highest. Among the various items of food, each family spent per month as much as Rs. 45 over milk, ghee, etc. Cereals were next in order. However, the percentage increase in expenditure on cereals did not keep pace with that on all articles of food warranted by steadily rising incomes. In the non-food category, house rent and transport with Rs. 26 and Rs. 22 respectively were the major heads of expenditure. Expenditure on items like sugar, gur, tea, coffee, tobacco showed an increase with an increase in income of the family. One family spent a sum of Rs. 43 on them.

Clothing and Education.

The item of expenditure that constituted the major difference between this group and the rest was clothing. The standards of clothing differed widely having regard to factors like, decency, fashion, custom and usage. A family spent annually Rs. 465 (or one twelfth of its average annual income) on clothing. Expenditure on guests and charity accounted for Rs. 162 and Rs. 110 respectively. This group spent a large portion of its income on education, entertainment and similar heads of expenditure as compared to that of other groups. This speaks for its higher educational standard. Percentage of literates (above six years) in this group was as high as 98. Both males and females were equally literate. The percentage of those who received college education was 40. Monthly expenditure on education, travelling and entertainment amounted to Rs. 38, Rs. 22 and Rs. 7 respectively.

Investments and Loans.

As pointed out earlier, the family budgets of this group showed a surplus which was invested in National Savings Certificates, shares of joint stock companies, etc. or kept with banks in fixed deposit accounts. Surprisingly enough, cases of borrowing were not rare. Loans were raised from agencies like co-operative societies and banks. Funds were borrowed not for the purpose of making up the deficit but for purchasing shares or for investing them in other suitable avenues. On an average, the family borrowed Rs. 2.346 per year. In the course of the survey it was found that two or three families had, incurred debts aggregating Rs. 30,500 while others had incurred very small debts or no debts at all.

---

* The recognition of a person of the age of 12 or above as a full adult unit for cereal consumption, and a person below that age-limit as half a unit has now been widely accepted. In this chapter the unit of membership of a family is computed accordingly on the same basis, a person of the age of 12 or above being equal to one, and one below 12 being equal to half a unit.

CHAPTER 11.

Standard of living.

Housing

Like expenditure on food and clothing, expenditure on housing has a significant bearing on the standard of living of a family. As compared to other two classes, this class was definitely better off in the matter of housing. Families very often owned houses whose average value was Rs. 18,615 excluding the value of plot *viz.* Rs. 1,900. Houses were constructed in modern style and were provided with sanitary facilities, electrical fittings, etc. Besides, they were well-ventilated. Families occupying rented premises were few.

Household equipment.

Household equipment of these families was superior to that of the other classes. The use of brass utensils was common. Bedding consisted of mattresses, blankets, rugs, pillows and *chaddars*. Some of these families possessed musical instruments and other means of entertainment.

Income.

GROUP II : This was composed of Government servants, small businessmen and shop-keepers, retailers and stationers, lecturers and teachers, tailors and laundrymen, drivers, conductors, etc. The survey covered 45 families in this group. Average family in this class did not differ in size from that of the 1st group and consisted of four units (three adults and two minors). However, the number of earning members in the families in this group was more as compared to that in those of the 1st group. Earning members belonged to miscellaneous occupations. Some of the families owned a few acres of land whose monetary contribution was negligible. The average income of the family in this group was Rs. 106.

Expenditure.

On the expenditure side, foodgrains, cereals and pulses claimed the largest share of the total expenditure on food, the allocation being as high as Rs. 40 in some cases. This was followed by milk and milk products accounting for Rs. 24 per month. In contrast to expenditure of families in the 1st group the expenditure on vegetables, edible oils. spices, gur and sugar was lower. Travelling occasions were few and far between. An average family spent hardly a rupee on this head as against Rs. 22 spent by rich families. Items such as cosmetics and entertainment accounted for a smaller monthly expenditure of Rs. 7 and Rs. 3 respectively.

Education.

Literacy was as much marked in this group as in group I though the standards of literacy differed considerably. Among the literates, majority had received less education, such an incidence being highest among the females, the reason being that females could reach only up to the secondary stage whereas the males prosecuted their studies right up to the college level.

Housing.

In respect of housing, many families owned small houses of the value of Rs. 3,582 while others usually occupied three-room tenements. The number of rentier families was very small and the average rent received was low. But all the houses were not provided with amenities like adequate ventilation, electricity, tap-water connection and flush latrines.

CHAPTER 11.

Standard of living.
Household equipment.

The household equipment consisted of brass and copper utensils enough to meet the domestic needs. The bedding consisted of one or two mattresses, carpets, rugs and blankets (of indigenous wool known as *kambalee*). The cost of bedding varied between Rs. 50 and Rs. 75. Besides, each family was observed to own a set of tools and other accessories with which it had to work. Instances, where a family possessed musical instruments or other means of entertainment were rare.

GROUP III.—This group included in its fold a vast majority of poor families comprising persons who were either agricultural tenants, petty shop-keepers, unskilled or semi-skilled labourers, hawkers, shoe-makers, barbers, tin-smiths, coolies, carpenters, cooks, etc. Very few had property of their own. Their housing conditions and dietary differed considerably from the other two groups described above.

Income.

On an average each family comprised three and a half units (two adults and three minors). Each family owned an acre of land mostly of inferior quality which afforded a family an annual income of Rs. 105. Barring families having a subsidiary source of income in agriculture, the remaining had no other source of earning except the main occupations which they followed. The annual income from the main occupation did not exceed Rs 680 per family or household. On this basis, the average monthly income of a family ranged between Rs. 30 and Rs. 75.

Expenditure.

As regards expenditure, greater part of the income was absorbed in satisfying the urgent needs of existence *viz.* cereals and pulses. The average expenditure of a family on them amounted to Rs. 20·7. On other items of expenditure like milk, oils and spices, gur and sugar, vegetables, etc. an average family spent Rs. 9 9, Rs. 2·8, Rs. 2·4 and Rs. 1·7, respectively.

Loans.

As the families thus lived a bare existence and most of the income was consumed in satisfying the day-to-day wants, nothing could be spared for items such as cosmetics, recreation, entertainment, servants, etc. Most of the families in the group were found to have deficit budgets. To meet this deficit many families had to resort to borrowing. Of the 47 families surveyed, nearly 25 had incurred loans to the extent of Rs. 6,395. Most of these loans were taken from money-lenders, friends, relatives and co-operative societies. The borrowing was resorted to either to balance their family budgets or to carry out repairs to their houses or to provide for absolute necessaries.

Education.

Such a class living from hand-to-mouth could not be expected to provide for education to their children. Only about half the number of adult persons (in the families surveyed) could be included in the category of literates. In the case of women this percentage of literacy was even lower. Among the literates most of the persons had taken only primary education while the percentage of persons who had received secondary education was as low as five or six.

CHAPTER 11.

Standard of living.
Housing.

The housing conditions of families in this group were far from satisfactory. The houses, mostly groundfloor structures having walls of mud or sun-dried (*kaccha*) bricks and roofs of dry leaves or thatch, had poor ventilation. The poor persons ranking at the bottom of this group stayed in small huts with walls of reed roofs thatched with rice straw and grass. The household equipment was insufficient, often consisting of some brass and copper utensils. No wonder if they could not afford furniture or musical instruments and other means of entertainment. Their bedding comprised two or three mattresses, pillows, coarse rugs and carpets. Occasionally a family was found to have a bullock-cart or a cycle. Most of them, however, had a set of instruments and accessories required for their daily work. To conclude, persons in this class on account of their poor earnings have to put up with a hard struggle for existence and have to keep a very low standard of living.

Household equipment.

RURAL AREAS.

The standard of living of the people living in the rural areas of Ratnagiri district does not present a very happy picture. An attempt is made to give a broad analysis of their standard of living which is based on a survey of 450 families from about 50 villages. The evaluation of the standard of living of the rural folk, however, is beset with some difficulties. Firstly, several transactions take place in the form of barter (direct exchange of commodities without the use of money) and their economic significance cannot be guaged fully. Secondly, persons depending upon agriculture supplement their income by following other related or allied occupations either within the village or in the neighbouring villages, while many families get regular monetary help from persons employed in cities. Against this background, a clear and satisfactory differentiation of occupations and economic classes is hardly possible.

The undermentioned classification is, however, calculated to differentiate the various occupational classes which can be grouped together in virtue of their economic position.

(1) Well-to-do cultivators.

(2) Medium cultivators.

(3) Tenant cultivators.

(4) Landless labourers.

(5) Village artisans.

(6) Miscellaneous groups.

WELL-TO-DO CULTIVATORS.

Big or well-to-do farmers form an upper strata of the rural society by virtue of its ownership of land together with the consequent control over labouring classes and its relatively higher income. Survey of twenty-three families in this group revealed the following facts.

CHAPTER 11.

Standard of living. Income.

Typical family of a big farmer comprised eight or nine members of whom three were minors. As the head of the family could afford to employ any amount of labour to work on the fields, there was seldom need for the members of his family to work on farms. Land, the chief source of income, yielded an average annual income of Rs. 11,500 while the income from subsidiary sources amounted to Rs. 594 per year. Besides land, each family generally owned two spacious houses and 10 to 11 heads of cattle comprising buffaloes, bulls, cows and calves.

In the field of education, this class was much advanced as compared to other sections, the percentage of literacy (excluding children below six) being as high as 71·6. Among the literates, males outnumbered females by a margin of nine per cent. Most of the literate persons received only primary education; nearly two fifths went in for secondary education while hardly one per cent. of them went in for higher education.

Expenditure.

Investment and Loans.

The analysis of expenditure indicated that an average family had to spend annually almost the whole of its income or Rs. 2,000 over its normal requirements with the result that very few families were in a position to save. Out of 23 families surveyed only nine had savings aggregating Rs. 1,003 in the form of postal savings, bank deposits, etc. Very few families resorted to borrowing for the sake of marriage or medical expenses. Debts incurred by an average family did not exceed Rs. 345 per year which were borrowed mostly on personal security from money lenders, shop keepers, or in a few cases from relatives. Some of the loans were secured free of interest while others carried a rate of interest between four per cent. and six per cent.

The monthly expenditure of a family was about Rs. 138 of which Rs. 98·7 was on various items of food. Among food articles, expenditure on cereals and pulses was more than that on milk, ghee, etc. which were very often produced at home. Expenditure on major heads other than food was very limited and did not increase *pari passu* with the rise in income of the family. Especially all the families spent paltry sums over miscellaneous items such as cosmetics and entertainment. Only one family was found to possess a radio set while the other two had gramophones.

Household equipment.

The household equipment was sufficient to meet domestic requirements and often consisted of brass and copper utensils. The beddings consisted of mattresses, pillows, rugs and *chaddars*. Use of gold ornaments like necklaces, bangles, rings, nose-rings, etc. was very common. It is an index to status among the rural classes. Very few families owned furniture. All of them were found to possess necessary agricultural tools and implements like ploughs (generally two or three per family), seed drills, harrows, axes, spades, sickles, etc. Many of them owned bullock carts for the purpose of transportation of goods from field to house and from house to market.

MEDIUM CULTIVATORS.

The medium cultivator is a constituent of the usual middle class or the peasantry. His economic position places him between the well-to-do farmer and the tenant cultivator. A typical middle class cultivator owns nine to ten acres of land, which, by virtue of its poor quality, fetches him a meagre income. Very often this income is supplemented by income from other avenues of employment.

A family in this group is usually composed of five to six members, and the percentage of earning members is higher in this group than in the first, the number of male earners on an average being 1·4 and that of female earners being 0·3. Boys and girls taking education in primary or secondary schools also help their parents in agricultural operations in spare time.

In the field of literacy, the class of medium cultivators is better off than those of tenant cultivators and landless labourers. The percentage of literacy in this class was found to be 59·2, the percentage for females being still lower. Surprisingly enough, the percentage of persons taking higher education is greater in this class than in any other.

Expenditure.

The expenditure side of the family budgets of this group of persons did not show marked variations from the expenditure pattern of the group of well-to-do farmers. This is attributable to the fact that a considerable part of the expenditure was absorbed by food articles. The expenditure on cereals and pulses was found to be Rs. 32, on vegetables Rs. 2·3, on milk Rs. 4·1, and on tea and coffee Rs. 3. Expenditure on clothing, ceremonies, guests and charity was, however, found to be less than that of the previous group.

Loans.

The family budget of persons in this group is more often than not unbalanced, the balance being restored either by borrowing or buying on credit. Of the 27 families surveyed from this group 14 were found to be indebted. Of these 14 families eight had borrowed for unproductive purposes such as marriage ceremony, sickness, etc., while three had borrowed partly for productive and partly for unproductive purposes. Only two families were found to have incurred loans for education and improvement of agriculture. The system of deferred payments was also found in some cases. The debts were obtained from relatives, co-operative societies and the Government (in the form of *tagai*). The rates of interest varied from 6 to 8 per cent.

Household equipment.

The household equipment of this group of families consisted of brass, copper and earthen utensils. The bedding equipment was comprised of blankets (*ghongadi*), *chaddars* and a mattress or two. Most of the families possessed a small quantity of old fashioned ornaments of gold, *viz.*, bangles, *putali* (necklace), etc. Almost every family possessed agricultural implements like ploughs, axes, sickles, their value varying from Rs. 100 to Rs. 500 for an individual family.

CHAPTER 11.

Standard of living.

TENANT CULTIVATORS.

The class of tenant cultivators stands just above the lowest rung of the agricultural ladder. The recent agricultural legislation has conferred upon them the right of occupancy of the land they cultivate and helped their emancipation from the old bonds of zamindari system. Efforts are also made to improve the economic condition of the cultivators by providing long-term finance, irrigation facilities, supply of seed and fixation of rent they have to pay to the landlord.

Income.

Survey of the 23 families revealed that the annual income of a family from this group hardly exceeds Rs. 850. Naturally this amount falls short of the normal requirements of a family of five to six units. Although one-third of the members of the family earn, their employment is of a seasonal nature. Hence, some of them seek temporary alternative employment in Bombay or the neighbouring towns. Most of the income was found to be spent on food articles and clothing. Pulses and cereals accounted for an expenditure of Rs. 40·7 per month, while the annual expenditure on clothing amounted to Rs. 96·2. The pattern of expenditure does not differ much from that of the group of medium cultivators.

Investment and Loans.

Saving was found to be a very rare occurrence. On the contrary, (of the 23 families surveyed) 15 families were found to be in debt, which was taken mainly from shop-keepers, relatives, money lenders and co-operative societies.

The standard of literacy in this group was found to be comparatively poor, the percentage of literates being only 37·1. The standard of literacy among females was considerably lower. It was found that there was not a single person in this group who had reached the stage of secondary education.

Household equipment.

The household equipment consisted of brass, copper, aluminium and earthen utensils, beddings consisting of rough *chuddars* and *ghongadis* (blankets). All of them were found to own agricultural implements such as axes, sickles, ploughs, shovels, etc.

LANDLESS LABOURERS.

Landless labourers, constitute a sizable portion of the rural economy. For the major part of the year they are in the grip of unemployment, want and misery. Some of them find alternative employment in Bombay in winter and summer.

Income.

From the 30 families surveyed from this group, it was found that on an average a family consisted of five members and that both males and females worked to earn livelihood, while young boys used to help the parents in their work. The annual income of a family amounting to Rs. 448, was hardly enough to meet the needs, with the result that about 18 families were found to have borrowed mainly for their subsistence.

Percentage of literacy in this group was very low, *viz.*, 23·4. Literacy among the females was rarely found.

CHAPTER II.

Standard of living. Expenditure.

Poverty does not permit them to spend on things other than the bare necessities of life. Food accounts for the largest expenditure. A typical family of a landless labourer was found to spend Rs. 31·1 on clothing, Rs. 4·6 on medicines, and quite a low amount on other miscellaneous items.

Housing and Household equipment.

Housing conditions of these people are far from satisfactory; a thatched hut of straw or bamboo, very often exposed to rain waters, serves as a shelter. The household equipment consists of brass, copper, aluminium and earthen utensils; beddings consisting of worn out carpets *chaddars*, *ghongadis; and* agricultural implements like sickle, axe, shovel, etc.

VILLAGE ARTISANS.

Village artisans form an important section of the village community embracing as it does all skilled and semi-skilled persons like tailors, goldsmiths, blacksmiths, weavers, shoe-makers, barbers, etc.

A typical family of a village artisan consists usually of six members of whom generally two persons earn for the family. The head of the family follows his hereditary occupation, while others help him in his work. Females also take up work which is not strenuous. Besides their main occupation, some families possess a strip of land or two.

Income.

The annual income of an artisan, *viz.*, Rs. 600 to Rs. 800, falls short of the requirements. Nearly half of the families surveyed were found to be indebted. The debts were incurred for marriage or sickness.

Expenditure.

The expenditure pattern of an artisan's family differs only slightly from that of a medium cultivator. It was found to spend as much as Rs. 43·3 on food items of which cereals and pulses together accounted for Rs. 36·6, while expenditure on other items hardly amounted to Rs. 20 per month.

Each of the families surveyed was found to own a small house or a hut of straw and bamboo. The household equipment consisted of utensils, beddings, tools and implements required for their profession, while a few were found to have luxury articles like radio-sets and gramophone, and ornaments of gold and silver.

MISCELLANEOUS GROUP:

This group being composed of teachers, traders, and shop-keepers, medical practitioners, etc. enjoys an influential social status by virtue of the economic prosperity of its constituents. In spite of the fact that they are grouped together, there are differences between one and the other. The distinguishing characteristics can apparently be seen in the level of their income. The medical practitioners and traders, for example, are economically better off than teachers or shopkeepers.

CHAPTER 11.

Standard of living. Income pattern.

This class of professionals can, however, be distinguished from other classes in certain respects, *viz.*;(i) as revealed by the investigations many of the families have no fixed income, their incomes vary from month to month or year to year; (ii) some are engaged in social and philanthropic work.

Income.

A family from this group usually consisted of five to six members of whom more than three were adults. Generally the head of the family was its mainstay, while others used to help him. The average yearly income per family was found to be Rs. 1,486·9. Some of the traders, medical practitioners and teachers possessed land. To that extent they were economically better off than the cultivators.

Expenditure.

The expenditure side of their family budgets revealed that considerable part of the income was spent on food-stuffs and clothing. It being an advanced class in the rural society, the constituents of their food are generally nutritious and costly. their consumption of milk, tea, sugar, oil, spices, fruits and vegetables is also higher than in any other class of persons in the rural society except the big landowners. Considerable variations were seen in the expenditure on clothing. In one schedule, for instance, the annual expenditure on clothing was Rs. 500, while in another it was Rs. 275 only. Persons from this group were found to spend considerably on education, entertainment and donations to social work.

Education.

In this group, cases of indebtedness were very few. The families which were indebted reported to have borrowed mainly for providing capital to their respective occupations.

Housing.

The conditions of housing were far better in this group than those of others except the big landowners. Some households had even radio sets.

CONCLUDING REMARKS.

Such an analysis of budgets of some families representing the different economic classes in the rural society of the district can be said to describe, though not in strictly accurate statistical terms, the economic condition of the rural masses.

The investigations revealed that except for a small section of big cultivators the majority of the population live either on or below the margin of subsistence. Except in summer when some persons find employment in the production and export of mangoes and cashew-nuts there is no alternative channel of employment. Consequently, there is an exodus of people to Bombay.

CHAPTER 12—ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

CHAPTER 12.

Economic Prospects.

INTRODUCTION.

THE PRECEDING CHAPTERS HAVE GIVEN THE ACCOUNT of progress achieved in the major departments of economic life in the district. In the present chapter an attempt has been made to give a broad outline of the possibilities of economic development in the years to come in the context of resources available. In spite of the successful execution of the two five year plans, Ratnagiri district continues to be a backward region. The peculiar geographical position accounts for its comparatively poor development in the spheres of agriculture, trade, industry and transport. The rocky and rugged soil, lack of rich and fertile land and major irrigation facilities, absence of adequate means of transport and communications, non-availability of adequate electric power, lack of capital resources and so many other factors have come in the way of its development. The district continues to be a deficit tract as regards food grains.

AGRARIAN REFORM.

Agricultural output can be increased by increasing the scope of intensive and extensive cultivation with adequate facilities for the supply of improved seeds and manures and facilities for irrigation. There is considerable scope for intensive as well as extensive cultivation in the district. Owing to scarcity of manures like cow dung and other indigenous manures and the prohibitive cost of chemical fertilisers in the district even major crops like paddy and *nagli* have to go without adequate manuring which is so essential for obtaining maximum yield from the soil. Farm yard manure and fish manure which do not give maximum output are used liberally because of their low cost and easy availability. Till recently cultivators were wasting away compost manure as they did not know how to use it. The Department of Agriculture has now started giving them training in the new methods of manuring. In the absence of stocks of improved seeds, it is a practice in this district to sow seeds which are preserved from the last years stock. This does not give good results. Use of improved seeds can bring about increase in the average yield by about 10 per cent. The Government of Maharashtra has introduced such a scheme for multiplication and distribution of improved seeds, particularly paddy and *nagli*; but it has not yet covered the whole area which is suitable for the introduction of

CHAPTER 12.

Economic Prospects.

improved seeds. Moreover, seed supply is also not regularly made to cultivators owing to transport difficulties. Regular supply of these seeds will increase the paddy output. Provision of irrigation facilities is also inadequate as only 3·8 per cent. of the total cultivable land was brought under irrigation till 1955-56. Though no major irrigation facilities can be contemplated, minor schemes like construction of small *bandharas* and tanks can increase the output of agriculture. Adequate facilities for well irrigation will provide for the growth of more vegetation and garden crops like *supari* and *mirchi*.

Similarly, area under cultivation can be further increased if the 7,15,678 acres of land, which is cultivable waste, is brought under cultivation. Improvement on these lines will add to the agricultural output.

Cashewnuts.

Cashew is a commodity of considerable commercial importance to the Konkan region. Ratnagiri district occupies most of the area under cashew-nut in Maharashtra State. The district provides maximum scope for extension of cashew-nut cultivation where deforestation and absence of vegetation have caused soil erosion. Out of the two million acres of land available for agricultural purposes, one million acres are classed as *nagli* areas, cultivable waste and barren land which have steep slopes and where shifting cultivation causes considerable erosion. The whole area is well suited for cashew-nut cultivation. The schemes of cashew-nut cultivation launched by the Government of Maharashtra contemplate the expansion by 9,000 acres of the area under the crop in the Konkan region. The scheme will be successful if necessary financial assistance and supply of selected pedigreed seed is made available free of cost to cultivators for bringing these lands under the crop. The district would then become a potential supplier of the world's requirement of cashew-nut kernels.

Mango.

Among the new food crops, Alphonso mangoes are the most valuable product of the region. Mango claims to be the national fruit of the people. Of all the varieties grown in India, Alphonso which is grown in the district possesses most of the desirable commercial attractions, like golden yellow colour, flavour, taste and the best keeping quality. It is also a best canner. The district with its congenial climatic conditions, ideal soils for cultivation of this variety and proximity of the terminal market like Bombay city is admirably suited for growing this world's most luscious fruit. During the last two decades new orchards of Alphonso and *Pairi* varieties have been continuously growing. The area under mango orchards in the district is about 21 per cent. of the total area under mangoes in the whole of Maharashtra State. Area under mango orchards can further be extended as there is a growing demand for the same variety. Considerable potentialities exist for profitable and successful export of the fruit to foreign markets, both as a fresh table fruit and for the numerous products it yields. There is also

an unlimited scope for the extension of area under mango orchards in the district. The slopes of the Sahyadri hills are suitable for extension of such orchards.

Forest Resources.

Forests are an important source of fuel and raw material such as bamboos, gum, *kätha*, timber, teak wood, *hirda*, *shikekai*, etc. Ratnagiri district has a total area of 46,892 acres of forests. About a century ago, forests in Ratnagiri were extremely rich in forest wealth. Slopes of the Bankot creek were clothed with fine teak. During the two Great World Wars the cutting of teak wood was so heavy and wanton that it rendered vast forest areas barren and unproductive. In spite of such heavy cutting, several hills of the Sahyadri mountains still contain teakwood trees. Forest area thus needs to be extended considerably with a proper reafforestation and regeneration. The scope for reafforestation has been further enlarged with the merger of princely State of Sawantwadi which had a vast area of forests. During the First Five Year Plan, work of reafforestation was taken up in the Khed taluka and some progress was achieved but still much remains to be done. Exploitation of other minor forest products such as *shikekai*, *shembi* bark, *sawari* cotton which command good markets can also be further increased so as to meet the growing requirements. There is also every possibility of developing farms growing medical plants required in Ayurvedic medicines.

INDUSTRIES.

Though no large industries can be developed in the district there is a considerable potential for the development of small industries. Cashew-nut and mangoes are the instances in view. Mangoes and cashew-nuts are the most valuable products of this region in as much as they are exchange earners of the country. There are three factories in the southern part of the district engaged in decortication of cashew-nuts. Their number can be increased if the contemplated scheme of bringing more area under cashew-nut plantation is successful. So also cashew-nut shells which are burnt in the proceessing of cashew-nut, contain about 30 to 35 per cent. oil, known for its high phenolic content. This liquid is used as raw material for manufacture of phenolic resins of special grade, varnishes and marine paints. In the drum roasting technique, which is followed by these factories, the liquid obtainable from cashew-nut shell is mostly burnt. If the local industry adopts the oil bath method of processing cashew-nut, higher percentage of better cashew-nut shell liquid can be recovered.

Fruit canning.

Canning of slices in syrups and mango pulp has got ample scope for development, since these products have big market in Bombay, United Kingdom and the Middle Eastern countries. The district with its suitable climate for mango-growing can satisfy the overseas demand for these products if more and more land is brought under mango cultivation.

Fisheries.

Since the district has a large coast line of about 250 miles, fishing is one of the most important industries of the district. There are about

CHAPTER 12.

Economic Prospects.

120 coastal villages engaged in fishing and the estimated fish catch is about 3,50,000 maunds per year. The scope for increasing production of fish is certainly large as both inland and sea water fisheries are under-developed. The main problems faced by fishermen are lack of finance, inadequate transport and market facilities and lack of modern methods of fishing. These fishermen who are hereditary artisans are very poor and are always in the grip of middlemen for finance. Mechanisation of indigenous fishing crafts which enables them to extend their fishing activities in the sea and increases the frequency of visits to fishing grounds is another problem faced by them. Of the 3,700 fishing boats in the district very few are mechanised. It is therefore very necessary to introduce power crafts with adequate gear for exploitation of fish resources. Financial assistance by Government is necessary for mechanisation of fishing equipment and accessaries along with the development of ports. In addition to these requirements, training of young fishermen in mechanical and modern methods of fishing will help them to drive power crafts required for fish catch. Improvement of fish curing facilities will better the quality of fish cured and establishment of cold storage plants will keep the fish fresh for a long time. All these facilities are required for the development of fishing industry.

Miscellaneous Industries.

Similarly, there is considerable scope in the coastal region for the development of the coir industry. The All India Coir Board has been given assistance in the form of finance, marketing and introduction of new designs.

With the development of ports and availability of better shipping facilities, traffic is expected to increase. It will encourage country craft building. Jayagad, Ratnagiri, Vijayadurg, Deogad, Malwan and Vengurla are the centres where repairing of sailing vessels is done but the industry is not well organised. Small industries like mechanised carpentry and smithy shops constructing small vessels can be developed at such places.

There is also the possibility of developing salt manufacturing along the coast line.

Mineral Potential.

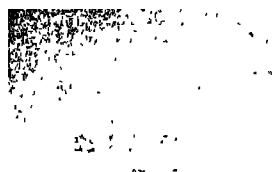
Several mineral deposits are known to exist in this region; but they are not exploited extensively for want of transport facilities and other reasons such as the inferior quality of the mineral deposits. Iron and manganese ores are extensively found at several places in Vengurla and Sawantwadi talukas. The iron deposits at Redi near Vengurla contain about a million tons of iron ore having iron contents of over 58 percent. Likewise manganese ores appear to be occurring almost side by side with iron but its quality is somewhat inferior having an aggregate manganese content of 30 to 40 per cent. Similarly ilmenite ore containing 20 to 25 per cent. titanium dioxide; bauxite deposits containing about 45 to 60 per cent. aluminium content, chromite, mica, silica are found in this region. Continuous efforts are required to upgrade the quality of these ores. Unless they

are upgraded they cannot command a good market. Moreover, it is also necessary to carry out surveys for finding out ores of better qualities.

Conditioning Factors of Industrial Development.

Cheap and abundant power supply, transport facilities and availability of financial resources are the basic conditions required for expansion of industry and trade. In this respect Ratnagiri district is not provided advantageously. The district has four power houses, and the electricity they generate is not sufficient to satisfy the needs of even the towns where they are located. Moreover, charges per unit of consumption for both domestic and industrial purposes are very high. The situation as regards electricity will be eased when power, in large quantities, will be made available for industrial and other uses in this area after the completion of the Koyna Project which will help development of industries and trade. The programme of rural electrification as proposed in the third phase of the Koyna Scheme has considerable potentialities for the development of small industries like carpentry, blacksmithy, coir, etc.

A vital factor in the development of industries and expansion of trade is the availability of means of transport and communications. Ratnagiri district in this respect is not well placed. The general backwardness in the transport system is caused by the prevalent topographical conditions which discourage further development of transport. Out of the total road mileage of 1951, more than half is unmetalled. In the absence of railway communication, expansion of roads and improvement in the standards of existing roads are the basic needs for the expansion of trade and industry Railway transport is a long felt need of the district. None of its parts is served by railway communication. The Diva-Dasgaon railway even when completed will not touch even the border of this district. When the railway line will be extended and will traverse the district it will accelerate the pace of industrialisation in this area, especially the area around Chiplun which offers locational advantages. The Diva-Dasgaon railway line may only help, if at all, indirectly to expand cashew-nut and mango trade.

Besides these, what the expansion of trade and industry requires is the shipping facilities and development of ports. There are 15 ports in the district and cargo steamers call at Dabhol, Harnai, Deogad, Jayagad, Malvan, Ratnagiri, Vijayadurg and Vengurla ports only. Most of them are without wharfing and landing facilities and are silted They admit vessels with a maximum capacity of 200 tons only. Coastal trade will be expanded if ports are developed and wharfing and landing facilities are made available.

PART V—PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

CHAPTER 13—ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE.

INTRODUCTION.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE in the last century consisted mostly in providing security of person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. In other words, Police, Jails and Judiciary representing security, and Land Revenue, Excise, Registration and Stamps, representing revenue formed the most important departments of the State. The Public Works department was the only other branch of sufficient importance, but its activities of construction and maintenance were, apart from roads and irrigation works, confined to buildings, required for the departments of Government. With the spread of Western education and the growth of political consciousness in the country, and as a result of the gradual association of a few Indians with some aspects of the work of Government, the demand arose for the expansion of Governmental activities into what were called "nation building" departments, namely, Education, Health, Agriculture, Co-operation, etc. In the twenties and thirties of this century, after the introduction of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms a greater emphasis came to be laid on the development of these departments. When, as a result of the Government of India Act of 1935, complete popularisation of the Provincial Government took place in 1937, the new Government attempted not only to expand the "nation building" departments but also to take steps in the direction of creating what has now come to be generally described as a Welfare State. After the close of World War II and the attainment of independence by India in 1947, an all-out effort is being made to achieve a Welfare State as rapidly as possible and to build up a socially directed economy. The present activities of the State, therefore, require a much more elaborate system than what was felt to be necessary during the nineteenth century.

In the descriptions that follow in this chapter and in chapters 14-18, the departments of the State operating in the Ratnagiri district have been grouped into six categories, composed as follows :—

Chapter 13—Administrative Structure.—Land Revenue and General Administration* and Local Self-Government.

Chapter 14—Justice and Peace.—Judiciary, Police, Jails, and Social Welfare (Correctional Wing).

Chapter 15—Revenue and Finance.—Land Records, Sales Tax, Registration, Stamps, and Motor Vehicles.

*This is composed of the Collector and his subordinate officers.

CHAPTER 18. — Administrative Structure.

Chapter 16—Developmental Departments.—Agriculture, Veterinary, Forests, Co-operation, Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries, Industries, Public Works, Road Transport and Fisheries.

Chapter 17—Welfare Departments.—Education, Technical and Industrial Training, Medical, Public Health, Labour, Prohibition and Excise, Social Welfare (Backward Class Wing), the Charity Commissioner and Community Projects and National Extension Service

Chapter 18—Miscellaneous Departments.—Town Planning and Valuation, Publicity and Administration of Managed Estates.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

THE RATNAGIRI DISTRICT formerly consisted of only three prants or sub-divisions composed of eleven talukas and four mahals. On 15th August 1953, a new sub-division called the Chiplun sub-division consisting of Khed, Guhagar, Sangameshwar and Chiplun talukas was formed.

A rearrangement of the boundaries of various talukas had been effected in 1949-50. The district now covers an area of 5,020·9 square miles and according to the census of 1951 has a population of 1,711,964. The administrative divisions stand now as shown below :—

	Area in Square miles.	Population (1951 census).
(1) *Ratnagiri Sub-Division.*		
Ratnagiri Taluka ..	357·5	1,59,377
Rajapur Taluka ..	495·7	1,46,541
Lanje Mahal ..	283·0	77,921
Deogad Taluka ..	283·7	97,918
(2) *Chiplun Sub-Division.*		
Chiplun Taluka ..	434·4	1,53,102
Khed Taluka ..	385·8	1,24,861
Guhagar Taluka ..	242·2	87,386
Sangameshwar Taluka ..	499·1	1,48,331
(3) *Dapoli Sub-Division.*		
Dapoli Taluka ..	326·9	1,29,105
Mandangad Taluka ..	160·3	48,956
(4) *Sawantwadi Sub-Division.*		
Malvan Taluka ..	256·1	1,29,814
Sawantwadi Taluka ..	515·9	1,24,291
Kankavli Mahal ..	299·2	1,03,101
Kudal Mahal ..	316·4	1,01,545
Vengurla Mahal ..	126·6	79,215
	4,982·8*	17,11,964

* The area figure of the district of Ratnagiri as supplied by the Surveyor General of India to the Census authorities, is 5,020·9 square miles. The area figures given in this table, were obtained by the Census authorities from the District Inspector of Land Records or from local records.

Administrative Structure.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Commissioner.

With the passing of the Bombay Commissioners Act, 1957, Government created with effect from March 3, 1958, six posts of Commissioners in place of six posts of Divisional Officers. The Commissioner is considered to be the king-pin of the State administration and also the pivot on which the divisional administration turns. The Ratnagiri district together with the districts of Dhulia, Jalgaon, Nasik, Thana, Greater Bombay and Kolaba is included in Bombay Division of the Maharashtra State. The Commissioner of the Division, with his office at Bombay is the chief controlling authority of the Division in respect of all matters concerned with land revenue.

Revenue.—Subject to the general or special orders of the State Government, the Commissioner shall be the chief controlling authority in all matters connected with land revenue. The Collectors in exercise of the powers conferred upon them under the Land Revenue Code or under other Acts are subordinate to the Commissioners. Of the powers recently delegated and conferred by law on the Commissioners in land revenue matters, the following are important :—

(1) to revise the limits of the sub-divisions of districts,

(2) to pass final orders regarding extinction of rights of the public and the individual in or over any public road, lane or path not required for use by the public,

(3) to sanction reduction of assessment consequent upon re-classification of agricultural lands up to Rs. 200 per annum when classification operations are confined to a single village and Rs. 400 per annum when it extends to more than one village in a taluka,

(4) to decide disputes regarding rights to land between a municipality and Government,

(5) to sanction remission in case of total loss of crop due to local calamities, up to Rs. 1,000, and

(6) to fix priority for scarcity relief works

The Commissioner is also responsible for the following :—

(*a*) Supervision of and control over the working of revenue offices,

(*b*) Exercise of executive and administrative powers delegated by Government or conferred on him by law,

(*c*) General inspection of offices of all departments within the division,

(*d*) Inspection of local bodies on the lines done by Director of Local Authorities in the then State of Bombay,

(*e*) Co-ordination and supervision of the activities of all Divisional Heads of Departments with particular reference to planning and development.

CHAPTER 18.
—
Administrative Structure.

(*f*) Integration of the administrative set-up in the incoming areas.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Collector.

The Collector plays a pivotal role in the administration of the district. Not only is he at the head of the Revenue department in the district, but, in so far as the needs and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to supervise the working of the officers of other departments. There is a post of Additional Collector in this district and he is entrusted with independent subjects such as tenancy, *watan*, evacuee problems, forests, land acquisition, etc.

(*i*) *Revenue*.—The Collector is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees and water), wherever situated, and at the same time the guardian of the interests of members of the public in land in so far as the interests of Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated, whether applied to agricultural or other purposes, is liable to payment of land revenue, except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract (*vide* section 45, Land Revenue Code). Such land revenue is of three kinds : (i) agricultural assessment, (ii) non-agricultural assessment, and (iii) miscellaneous. The Collector's duties are in respect of (1) fixation, (2) collection, and (3) accounting of all such land revenue. This assessment is fixed on each piece of land roughly in proportion to its productivity ; and is revised every thirty years taluka by taluka. A revision survey and settlement are carried out by the Land Records department, before a revision is made, and the Collector is expected to review the settlement reports with great care. The assessment is usually guaranteed against increase for a period of thirty years. Government, however, grant suspensions and remissions in bad seasons as a matter of grace and the determination of the amount of these suspensions and remissions is in the hands of the Collector. As regards non-agricultural assessment, section 48 of the Code provides for alterations of the agricultural assessment when agriculturally assessed land is used for a non-agricultural purpose. In the same way, unassessed land used for a non-agricultural purpose is assessed to non-agricultural rates. All this has to be done by the Collector, according to the provisions of the Rules under the Land Revenue Code. Miscellaneous land revenue also has to be fixed by the Collector according to the circumstances of each case, when Government land is temporarily leased. It is also realised by the sale of earth, stones, usufruct of trees, etc., in Government land.

The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector, who is responsible for the recovery of the due revenue punctually and with the minimum of coercion and also for the proper crediting and accounting of the collections.

Statistics of Land Revenue Collections.—The following are statistics relating to land revenue collections in Ratnagiri district for the year 1957-58 :—

	Rs.
Number of villages :	
Khalsa	1,541
Inam	12
Gross fixed revenue, including Non-Agricultural Assessment and all other dues ..	14,03,176
Deduct—	
Assessment assigned for special and public purposes, including Forest	68
Net alienation of total inams . ..	27,007
Assessment of cultivable land—	
Unoccupied	13,266
Free or specially reduced	716
Remaining fixed revenue for collection :	
Agricultural :—	
Government-occupied land including specially reduced	61
Alienated lands	4,071
Building and other non-agricultural assessment	13,480
Fluctuating miscellaneous revenue ..	62,055
Local Fund	2,70,621
Demand	16,63,137
Remissions	3,971
Suspensions	6,165
Collections	16,60,248
Unauthorised balance	46,764

The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other Acts, such as the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), the Indian Stamp Act (II of 1899), the Indian Court Fees Act (VII of 1870), the Bombay Entertainment Duty Act (I of 1923), and the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). There are also other Revenue Acts which contain a provision that dues under them are recoverable as arrears of land revenue, and the Collector and his establishment have to undertake the recovery of such dues when necessary.

CHAPTER 13. — Administrative Structure. LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION. *Collector.*

In regard to the administration of the Forest Act, the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the Forest department, so far as his district is concerned, lies with the Collector, and the Sub-Divisional Forest Officer is his assistant for that purpose, except in matters relating to the technique of forestry.

As regards the Prohibition Act, the Collector has to issue personal permits to liquor and drug addicts and recover the assessment fees from shops permitted to sell liquor and drugs.

The administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) in its proper spirit rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under the various sections of the Act. The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXIII of 1948), and subsequent amendments have been made applicable to the district, since 28th December 1948.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Amendment) Act, 1955, is applicable to the district since 1st August 1956. The law has effected far-reaching changes in the tenancy law regarding the occupancy rights of the tenants, the duty of self-cultivation and redistribution of surplus or inefficiently cultivated land among the needy or landless. The "Tillers' Day" is the most important feature of the new law. The first day of April 1957, has been declared as the Tillers' Day under section 32. On this day tenants who cultivate personally the lands held by them on lease will, subject to certain conditions and exceptions, be deemed to have purchased them free from all encumbrances subsisting thereon that day. Immediately after the purchase price and its instalments, if any, are determined, the Agricultural Lands Tribunal in the district (all the Mamlatdars, Mahalkaris and Deputy Collector empowered to function as a Tribunal under the Act), calls upon the tenant to deposit with it the amount of the purchase price within one year of the passing of the order. As soon as the tenant makes the payment of the full amount in the prescribed time, the Tribunal prepares a certificate of purchase and delivers it to the tenant and necessary change in the Record of Rights is made through the village officer concerned.

(*ii*) *Inams.*—As a legacy of former Governments, alienations of land revenue have taken place in regard to large areas of land in the district. There are also cash allowances settled under various Acts. It is the duty of the Collector to see that the conditions under which these are continuable are observed and they are continued only to persons entitled to hold them. Recently, however, the State Government has inaugurated a policy of abolishing these alienations, and within a few years almost all lands in the district are expected to be assessed to full land revenue.

The following Acts have been made applicable to the district :—

(1) The Bombay Khoti Abolition Act, 1934, is applicable, since 15th May 1950, to all the talukas and mahals in the district except Sawantwadi, Kudal and Vengurla.

(2) The Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watan Abolition Act, 1950, came into force from 1st July 1951 in Dapoli, Chiplun, Sangameshwar, Rajapur, Ratnagiri, Deogad and Malvan talukas and Lanje and Kankavli mahals.

(3) The Bombay Personal Inam Abolition Act, 1952, is applicable to all the talukas and mahals of the district except Kudal and Sawantwadi.

(4) The Bombay Kauli and Katuban Tenure Abolition Act, 1953, is applicable with effect from 15th August 1953 to all talukas and mahals except Sangameshwar, Lanje and Ratnagiri.

(5) The Bombay Service Inams Useful to Community (Gujarat and Konkan), Resumption Rules, 1954, are applicable to four villages in Malvan taluka, since 1st December 1954.

(6) The Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (Jagir Abolition) Act, 1953, is applicable to Sawantwadi, Kudal, Vengurla and Deogad talukas.

(7) The Bombay Merged Territories and Miscellaneous Alienations Abolition Act, 1955, is applicable to lands from Sawantwadi and Rajapur talukas and Kudal, Vengurla and Kankavli mahals.

(8) The Bombay Saranjam, Jagirs and other Inams of Political Nature, Resumption Rules, 1952, are applicable to Rajapur taluka only from 1st August 1955.

(*iii*) *Public Utility*.—The Agriculturists' Loans Act (XII of 1884), and the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883), regulate the grant of loans to agriculturists at cheap rates for financing their operations. The Collector has to estimate the needs of his district in accordance with the policy of Government and in the event of a bad season, to make further demands for as much money as can be usefully loaned for the purpose of tiding over the scarcity. He has to take necessary steps for the most advantageous distribution of the amount placed at his disposal and to see that the advances so made are recovered at the proper time.

The Collector of Ratnagiri is the court of wards for the estates taken over under the Bombay Court of Wards Act (I of 1905). The Government have authorised the District Deputy Collector, Sawantwadi to exercise all the powers of the Collector under section 19 (3) of the Bombay Court of Wards' Act, 1905, as all the estates are in the Sawantwadi division and it is convenient for the District Deputy Collector in charge of that area to inspect the accounts of the estates and exercise close supervision.

(*iv*) *Accounts*.—The Collector is in charge of the treasury and is personally responsible to Government for its general administration, the due accounting of all moneys received and disbursed, the correctness of the treasury returns and the safe custody of the valuables

which it contains. In matters of accounts and audit, the Collector (with the treasury officer under him), is responsible to the Accountant-General, whose instructions he has to obey. He does not, however, take part in the daily routine of treasury business. For that work his delegate and representative is the teasury officer.

(*v*) *Quasi-Judicial functions in revenue matters.*—Among the quasi-judicial functions of the Collector, on the revenue side, apart from hearing appeals from the decisions of the Prant Officer under the Land Revenue Code and various other Acts, may be mentioned: (i) The revisional powers exercised under section 23 of the Bombay Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906), in respect of Mamlatdars' orders under the Act. (This power is delegated to an Assistant or Deputy Collector). (ii) Appellate powers under sections 53 and 69 of the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879). (iii) The work which the Collector does in connection with the execution of civil courts' decrees. (iv) Proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Act (I of 1894).

(*vi*) *Local Self-Government.*—In all cases in which the power of passing orders in matters affecting local bodies rests with the Commissioner or the State Government, either the proposals are made by the Collector or they are received by the Commissioner with the Collector's remarks. The Collector is entrusted with holding the triennial elections and bye-elections of the local bodies including panchayats. The various Acts governing local bodies give authority to the Collector as the chief representative of Government to supervise the action of local bodies and to give advice.

(*vii*) *Officers of other Departments.*—The Officers of other departments stationed at the district headquarters can be divided into two groups: (A)—(1) The District Judge, (2) the District Superintendent of Police, (3) the Executive Engineer and (4) the Civil Surgeon. (B)—(1) The District Prohibition Officer, (2) the Administrative Officer, District School Board, (3) the District Agricultural Officer and (4) the District Health Officer.

(A)—(1) The District Judge has a separate and independent sphere of work, and as Sessions Judge, he exercises appellate powers over the decisions of all judicial magistrates in the district. The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951), was enacted to meet a long-standing and wide-spread public desire for the separation of judicial functions from executive officers. It has separated the magistracy into "judicial magistrates,", who are subordinates of the Sessions Judge, and "executive magistrates" who are subordinates of the District Magistrates. It has withdrawn from the executive magistrates practically all powers of trial of criminal cases, and only in certain cases, the Sessions Judge has to hear appeals from the decisions of executive magistrates. Before the enactment of this legislation, the Sessions Judge used to exercise appellate powers over the decisions in criminal cases, of the District Magistrate and other First Class Magistrates in the district.

CHAPTER 13.

Administrative Structure.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Collector.

(2) The District Superintendent of Police and the police force of the district are under control of the District Magistrate in so far as their functions regarding the maintenance of law and order are concerned. As regards discipline, training and other administrative matters they are under the control of the Range Deputy Inspector-General of Police.

(3) The position of the Executive Engineer, is slightly different. Since his work is technical, he is not directly subordinate to the Collector though in a sense he plays a part subsidiary to the general administration of the district, of which, the Collector is the head, and he is expected to help the Collector whenever required to do so. The Collector can ask him to investigate the utility of minor irrigation works likely to be useful for agriculture in the district. At the time of actual execution of any work, the Collector can requisition the services of the Executive Engineer for making immediate arrangement for procuring the necessary establishment, tools, plant, building materials, etc. (Famine Relief Code, Section 81).

(4) The Civil Surgeon has also a separate and independent sphere of his own but must place his professional and technical advice and assistance at the disposal of the general district administration whenever required.

(B) The Officers in this group are all of subordinate status. Their services in their particular sphere can be requisitioned by the Collector, either directly in case of necessity, if the matter is urgent, or through their official superiors. The District Prohibition Officer, is subordinate to the Collector except in technical matters.

The following are some of the other officers of the District who have more or less intimate contact with the Collector in matters relating to their departments and have to carry out his general instructions :—

(1) Backward Class Welfare Officer, (2) The Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, (3) Animal Husbandry Officer, (4) The District Inspector of Land Records, (5) The District Officer, Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries, (6) Superintendent of Fisheries.

(*viii*) *As District Magistrate.*—The Collector's duties as District Magistrate are mostly executive. He is the head of all other executive magistrates in the district. As District Magistrate, besides the ordinary powers of a Sub-Divisional Magistrate, he has the following powers among others :—

(1) power to hear appeals from orders requiring security for keeping the peace or good behaviour (*Section 406, Criminal Procedure Code*) ;

CHAPTER 13. — Administrative Structure. LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION. *Collector.*

(2) power to call for records from any subordinate executive magistrate (Section 435);

(3) power to issue commission for examination of witnesses (Sections 503 and 506); and

(4) power to hear appeals from or revise orders passed by subordinate executive magistrates under section 514—procedure on forfeiture of bond (Section 515).

When authorised by the State Government the District Magistrate may invest any Magistrate, subordinate to him with :—

(1) power to make orders prohibiting repetitions of nuisance (Section 143);

(2) power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (Section 144); and

(3) power to hold inquests (Section 174).

The executive management of the sub-jails in the district is subject to his orders.

Besides being in control of the police in the district, the District Magistrate has extensive powers under the Criminal Procedure Code, the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951), and other Acts for the maintenance of law and order. It is his duty to examine the records of police stations and outposts, in order that he may gain an insight into the state of crime in the limits of the police station and satisfy himself that cases are being promptly disposed of.

In his executive capacity, the District Magistrate is concerned with the issue of licences and permits under the Arms Act (II of 1878), the Petroleum Act (VIII of 1899), the Explosives Act (IV of 1884), and the Poisons Act (I of 1904). He has also to supervise the general administration of these Acts, to inspect factories and magazines, and to perform various other supervisional functions.

(ix) *As District Registrar.*—As District Registrar, the Collector controls the administration of the Registration department within his district.

(x) *Sanitation and Public Health.*—The duties of the Collector in the matter of sanitation are :—(*a*) to see that ordinary and special sanitary measures are initiated in cases of outbreaks of epidemic diseases; (*b*) to watch and stimulate the efficiency of the daily sanitary administration of municipalities and other sanitary authorities; and (*c*) to advise and encourage local bodies to improve the permanent sanitary condition of the areas under them so far as the funds at their disposal will permit. He can freely requisition the advice and technical assistance of the District Health Officer, in this regard.

CHAPTER 12.
Administrative Structure.
LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.
Collector.

(xi) *District Development Board.*—Prior to 1952, there was a District Rural Development Board. The District or Divisional Officers of various departments concerned with rural development and members of the State Legislature and other representatives of rural areas constituted the District Rural Development Board. It was functioning till September 1952. The Collector was its *ex-Officio* Chairman.

With a view to co-ordinating the activities of the various non-statutory boards and committees in the district, the former District Rural Development Board was reconstituted in September 1952, as District Development Board, by amalgamating all existing non-statutory boards and committees with it. The constitution of the District Development Board is as below :—

(*a*) There are 72 members on the Board :—

(1) Twenty District or Divisional Officers ;

(2) Fourteen Members of the Legislative Assembly ;

(3) Two Members of Parliament ;

(4) One President, District Local Board ;

(5) One Chairman, District School Board ;

(6) Two *Sanchalaks, Sarvodaya Kendras.*

(7) One Representative of Co-operative Banks in Ratnagiri district ;

(8) Two Representatives of the Co-operative department ;

(9) One Member, Legislative Council ;

(10) Twenty-eight Other non-Officials.

(*b*) The Collector is the *ex-Officio* Chairman of the District Development Board.

(*c*) The Vice-Chairman of the District Development Board is the Chairman of all the sub-committees except the Police Advisory Committee and District Community Development/National Extension Service Advisory Committee of which the Collector is the Chairman.

(*d*) District Project Officer of Prant Officer's rank has been appointed for carrying out the administration of the Board.

(*e*) There is also one Honorary Secretary appointed on the District Development Board.

CHAPTER 18. — Administrative Structure. LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION. *Collector.*

(*f*) The below mentioned Sub-committees are functioning under the District Development Board :—

Sub-Committees of the District Development Board, Ratnagiri.

Serial No.	Name of the Sub-Committee.	No. of Members.	Secretary.	Nature of work entrusted (in brief).
1	Agriculture and Rural Development Sub-Committee.	9	The District Agricultural Officer, Ratnagiri.	Agriculture and rural research and supply matters.
2	Prohibition and Publicity Sub-Committee.	10	The Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise, Ratnagiri.	Prohibition propaganda.
3	Public Health Sub-Committee.	9	The District Health Officer, Ratnagiri.	Public Health and sanitation.
4	Co-operation and Fisheries Sub-Committee.	10	The Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.	Formation of Co-operative Societies of various types and Village Industries.
5	Minor Irrigation Sub-Committee.	11	The Executive Engineer, Ratnagiri.	Minor irrigation works.
6	Police Advisory Sub-Committee.	7	The District Superintendent of Police, Ratnagiri.	Matters relating to crime, traffic and other matters which require co-operation from the public.
7	The Social Welfare and Recruitment Sub-Committee.	10	The Social Welfare Officer, Ratnagiri.	To find out and suggest ways and means to implement various schemes to Government.
8	Education Sub-Committee.	9	The Educational Inspector, Ratnagiri.	Village reading rooms and social education programme, etc.
9	Village Panchayat Sub-Committee.	11	The District Village Panchayat Officer, Ratnagiri.	Matters relating to village panchayats especially their establishment according to plan and their smooth working.
10	District Community Development National Extension Service Advisory Sub-Committee.	19	The Prant Officer, Ratnagiri Division, Ratnagiri.	Matters pertaining to Community Development and National Extension Service Blocks.

The functions and duties of the District Development Board are (1) to advise and help Government in the execution of policies, mainly in respect of the matters concerning all the sub-committees; (2) to supervise and co-ordinate the work of its various sub-committees; (3) to supervise and guide the work of taluka development

boards; (4) to elect suitable agencies for the distribution of iron and steel materials and cement, to allot the materials and to supervise the schemes; and (5) to execute such schemes and administer such funds as may be entrusted by Government by specific instructions and orders.

(*xii*) *District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board*.—The Collector is also the President of the District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board. The Vice-President of this Board is a suitable (Retired) ex-serviceman from the district and the members of the Board are :—(1) the District Superintendent of Police; (2) the District Employment Officer; (3) a representative of the Indian Navy; (4) the President of District Local Board; (5) the Civil Surgeon; (6) the Administrator, Services Post-war Reconstruction Fund and allied funds; (7) members of the State Board resident in the district; (8) the Educational Inspector, Ratnagiri; (9) All Prant Officers in the district; (10) Assistant Recruiting Officer; and (11) non-Officials nominated by the Collector with the concurrence of the State Board.

The duties of the Board are :—(*a*) to look after the welfare of ex-servicemen, their families in the district and to extend to them the benefits available from various funds, (ii) to promote and maintain a feeling of goodwill between the civil and military classes, (iii) generally to watch over the families and interests of serving soldiers, etc., (iv) to implement in detail the work of the Maharashtra State Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board, (v) to supervise over the Military Boys' Hostels at Khed, Chiplun, Malvan, Deorukh and Sawantwadi.

(*xiii*) *National Extension Service Block*.—The Collector is expected to take personal interest in the National Extension Service Blocks opened in his district.

(*xiv*) *Control of Essential Articles**.—In April, 1960, there were 353 fair price shops in the district managed by co-operative societies, village panchayats and private bodies. Only food-stuffs such as rice, wheat, milo and sugar are sold in these shops.

* When as a consequence of World War II (1939-45), there was scarcity and maldistribution of various essential articles, such as food-stuffs, cloth, sugar and kerosene, Government undertook the control of the prices of these articles and the regulation of their production, supply and distribution. Some of the controls were continued for some years, after the end of the war, and it was not till 1954, that the controls on foodstuffs were removed. In the beginning, the work involved by these controls was discharged by the officers of the department of Land Revenue and General Administration. Later, as work increased, special staff and officers were appointed. But the procurement of foodgrains was always entrusted to the revenue officers and the general control over the administration of supply and distribution rested with the Collector in the district and the Mamlatdars in the talukas. In regard to rationing schemes the Collector was responsible for their proper working and for exercising general supervision over the rationing officers and their staff.

CHAPTER 13. — Administrative Structure. LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION. Collector's Office.

The Collector's Office.—The Collector's Office at Ratnagiri is divided into many branches. The Personal Assistant to the Collector supervises the work of all the branches except the Treasury. He is also the Additional District Magistrate.

The Deputy Chitnis Branch deals with magisterial and political work, the issue of arms and other licences for cinema houses, tea shops and possession of explosives, etc.; and police matters, connected with the maintenance of law and order. The General Branch under the head clerk (in the grade of a Mamlatdar), deals with municipalities, District Local Board matters, prohibition and excise, public works, medical affairs, fairs, telephones, displaced persons and evacuee property, etc. The Revenue Branch under the Chitnis (in the grade of a mamlatdar), deals with matters like land revenue, Land grants, *watans*, cash allowances, *tagai*, establishment, encroachments, dues of co-operative societies, forest matters, execution of civil court decrees, court of wards, land acquisition for public purposes, audit of village accounts (*Jamabandi* Audit) and inspection of talukas and public offices. The District Registration Office is one of the branches and is in charge of the headquarters sub-registrar. The Treasury Branch is in charge of the Treasury Officer. There are two more branches, (1) Election and (2) Tenancy. Election Branch is under an *Awal Karkun* and Tenancy Branch under the Additional *Chitnis* (in the grade of a mamlatdar). There is also a separate Village Panchayat Branch with the District Village Panchayat Officer of the grade of the Deputy Collector for the administration of village panchayats. There are at present 792 village panchayats in the district. The District Village Panchayat Officer works under the direct supervision and guidance of the Collector.

Prant Officers.

The Prant Officers.—Under the Collector are the Prant Officers who are either Assistant Collectors (Indian Administrative Service Officers) or District Deputy Collectors (Members of the Maharashtra Civil Service). There are in all four such prants or sub-divisions in the district. Each prant is in charge of an Assistant Collector or a Deputy Collector. The Headquarters of the Ratnagiri prant is at Ratnagiri and those of the other prants are at Chiplun, Dapoli and Sawantwadi. In addition to four prant officers, there is one Personal Assistant to the Collector of the grade of a Deputy Collector. The Treasury Officer is of mamlatdar's grade.

The Prant Officers form the connecting link between the mamlatdars or mahalkaris and the Collector. A Prant Officer exercises all the powers conferred on the Collector by the Land Revenue Code and by any other law in force or by executive orders, in regard to the talukas and mahals in his charge, except such powers as the Collector may specially reserve to himself. His principal functions in regard to his sub-division are :—

(*i*) *Revenue*.—(1) Inspection and supervision of the work of mamlatdars, circle officers, circle inspectors and village officers, including the inspection of taluka *kacheris*.

(2) Appointments, transfers, etc., of talathis, of stipendiary village officers and the appointment of hereditary village officers.

(3) Safeguarding Government interest in land by constant inspection, dealing with encroachments, breaches of the conditions on which land is held on restricted tenure, etc.

(4) Grant of waste land and disposal of alluvial land.

(5) Levy of non-agricultural assessment and passing orders regarding miscellaneous land revenue.

(6) Hearing of appeals against mamlatdars' decisions in assistance suits and watching the execution of assistance decrees.

(7) Hearing of appeals against mamlatdars' and mahalkaris' decisions in cases under the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act.

(8) Crop and boundary mark inspection and the checking of *annewaris* (estimates of crop yields for purposes of suspensions and remissions of revenue) and the record of rights.

(9) Supervision over the realisation of Government revenue.

(10) Successions to *watans* and other properties.

(11) Land acquisition.

(*ii*) *Magisterial.*—The Prant Officer is the Sub-Divisional Magistrate of his charge and as such exercises the powers specified in part IV of Schedule III of the Criminal Procedure Code. These include the ordinary powers of a Taluka Magistrate and also the power to require security to keep the peace (section 107); power to require security for good behaviour under sections 108, 109 and 110; powers to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (section 144); power to record statements and confessions during a police investigation (section 164); and power to hold inquests (section 174). The Sub-Divisional Magistrate, when empowered by the State Government has power also to call and forward to the District Magistrate records and proceedings of subordinate executive magistrates.

As Sub-Divisional Magistrate, the Prant Officer is required to inspect police Sub-Inspector's offices in the same way as the District Magistrate is required to do.

(*iii*) *Other Duties.*—Among the other duties of the Prant Officer may be mentioned :—

(1) Keeping the Collector informed of the happenings in his sub-division, not only from the revenue point of view but also in matters connected with law and order.

(2) Forest settlement work.

CHAPTER 13. Administrative Structure. LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

(3) Grant of tagai loans.

(4) The Prant Officer has over-all charge of directing and supervising development activities of the National Development Blocks opened in the talukas in his charge.

Each Prant Officer is assisted in his work by a *shirastedar* and three to five clerks.

Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris.

The Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris.—The mamlatdar is the officer in executive charge of a taluka and a mahalkari is in executive charge of a mahal. There is a sub-treasury* in every taluka or mahal, and this is in charge of the mamlatdar or mahalkari. There is practically no difference in kind between the functions and duties of a mamlatdar and those of a mahalkari. Each taluka or mahal has on the average two or three *awal karkuns*, eight or ten clerks, 50 talathis, one circle officer and three circle inspectors. The duties of mamlatdars and mahalkaris fall under various heads†.

(*i*) *Revenue.*—The mamlatdar's revenue duties are to prepare the ground work for the Prant Officer and the Collector to pass their orders upon. His report is called in almost all revenue matters. When these orders are passed he has to execute them.

In regard to the annual demand and collection of land revenue he has to get ready all village and taluka forms necessary for what is called the making of the *Jamabandi* of the taluka by the Collector or Prant Officer. The *Jamabandi* is an audit of the previous year's accounts. The demand for fixed agricultural revenue is settled, but there are remissions and suspensions to be calculated upon that fixed demand in lean years. Remissions and suspensions are given in accordance with the crop *annewaris* with the determination of which the mamlatdar is most intimately concerned. To the demand of fixed revenue is added, the amount of non-agricultural assessment and fluctuating land revenue such as that arising from the sale of trees, stone or sand, fixed when individuals apply for them.

The brunt of the work of collection also lies on the mamlatdar. He can issue notices under section 152, Land Revenue Code; inflict fines for delay in payment under section 148, Land Revenue Code; and distrain and sell moveable property and issue notices of forfeiture of the land, though he has to take the Prant Officer's or the Collector's orders for actual forfeiture.

* Four branches of the State Bank of India are opened in the Ratnagiri district, at Ratnagiri, Chiplun, Malvan and Khed and the cash business and the currency chest in these talukas have been transferred to the branches of the State Bank of India.

† In the following paragraphs whatever is said of the mamlatdar applies also to the mahalkari.

He has to collect, in addition to land revenue, *tagai* loans, *pot hissa* measurement fees, boundary marks advances and irrigation revenue, the dues of other departments, like sales tax, income-tax and forest, when there is default in their payment, at the request of these departments to recover the dues as an arrear of land revenue.

Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris.

It is also his duty to see that there is no breach of any of the conditions under which inams are held and, whenever there is any such breach, to bring it to the notice of the Collector through the Prant Officer.

He has to make enquiries and get ready the material on which the Prant Officer has to pass his own orders under the Bombay Hereditary Offices Act (III of 1874). He can himself pass orders as to the appointment, remuneration, period of service, suspension and fining of inferior village servants, the grant of leave of absence to them and the like.

Applications for grant of *tagai* are generally received by the mamlatdar, who has to get enquiries made by the circle officer and circle inspector, see the sites for the improvement of which *tagai* is sought, ascertain whether the security offered is sufficient, determine what instalments for repayment would be suitable, etc. He can himself grant *tagai* up to Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 200, under the Land Improvement Loans Act and Agricultural Loans Act, respectively. A mamlatdar who has been specially empowered can grant *tagai* up to Rs. 2,500 and 500 under the Land Improvement Loans Act and the Agricultural Loans Act, respectively. In other cases he has to obtain orders from the Prant Officer or the Collector.

The mamlatdar's duties regarding *tagai* do not end with the giving of it; he has to see that it is properly utilized, inspect the works undertaken by its means, watch the payments, and make recoveries from defaulters. The mamlatdar is primarily responsible for the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) and subsequent amendments within the areas of his charge. Some of his powers under the Act have been delegated to the *awal karkuns*.

(ii) *Quasi-Judicial*.—The quasi-judicial duties which the mamlatdar performs include: (1) inquiries and orders under the Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906); (2) the execution of civil court decrees; (3) the disposal of applications from superior holders for assistance in recovering land revenue from inferior holders; and (4) enquiry in respect of disputed cases in connection with the record of rights in each village. The last two are summary enquiries under the Land Revenue Code.

CHAPTER 18.

Administrative Structure.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris.

(iii) *Magisterial.*—Every mamlatdar is ex-officio the Taluka Magistrate of his taluka. As Taluka Magistrate, First Class, he has the following among other powers under the Criminal Procedure Code :—

(1) Power to command any unlawful assembly to disperse (section 127).

(2) Power to use civil force to disperse unlawful assembly (section 128).

(3) Power to require military force to be used to disperse unlawful assembly (section 130).

(4) Power to apply to District Magistrate to issue commission for examination of witness (section 506).

(5) Power to recover penalty on forfeited bond (section 514) and to require fresh security (section 514-A).

(6) Power to make order as to disposal of property regarding which an offence is committed (section 517).

(7) Power to sell property of a suspected character (section 525).

If authorised by the State Government or the District Magistrate, the Taluka Magistrate may exercise the following among other powers :—

(1) Power to make orders prohibiting repetitions of nuisances (section 143).

(2) Power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (section 144).

(3) Power to hold inquests (section 174).

The mamlatdar is also in charge of the management of the sub-jail. He has to keep the District Magistrate and the Sub-Divisional Magistrate informed of all criminal activities in his charge and take steps incidental to the maintenance of law and order in his charge. In a case of serious disturbance of the public peace, the mamlatdar carries great responsibility, for, as the senior executive magistrate on the spot, he must issue orders and carry on till his superiors arrive.

(iv) *Treasury and Accounts.*—As sub-treasury officer, the mamlatdar is in charge of the taluka treasury which is called "sub-treasury", in relation to the district treasury. Into this treasury all moneys due to Government in the taluka—land revenue, forest, excise, public works and other receipts—are paid and from it nearly the whole of the money expended for Government in the taluka is secured. The Sub-post Offices in the taluka receive their cash for postal transactions from the sub-treasury and remit their receipts to it. The sub-treasury officer pays departmental officers on cash orders or on demand drafts issued by treasury officers and

on cheques, except where certain departments are allowed to present bills direct at the sub-treasury. The sub-treasury officer also issues Government bank drafts.

When the mamlatdar is away from his headquarters the treasury head *karkun* is ex-officio in charge of the sub-treasury and the account business and is held personally responsible for it. During the mamlatdar's presence he is authorised to sign receipts irrespective of the amount.

The taluka sub-treasury is also the local depot for stamps—general, court fee and postal—of all denominations and for the stock of opium held there for sale to permit-holders.

A currency chest is maintained at almost all sub-treasuries in which surplus cash balances are deposited. From it, withdrawals are made to replenish sub-treasury balances. Sub-treasuries are treated as agencies of the Reserve Bank for remittance of funds.

The mamlatdar has to verify the balances in the sub-treasury, including those of stamps and opium, on the closing day of each month, which for the convenience of the District Treasury is fixed on the 25th of all months, except February when it is the 23rd, and March when it is 31st, the latter being the closing day of the financial year The report of the verification, together with the monthly returns of receipts under different heads, has to be submitted by the mamlatdar to the treasury officer at Ratnagiri. The sub-treasuries are annually inspected by either the Collector or the Prant Officer.

(v) *Other administrative duties.*—The mamlatdar is the pivot of the administration in his taluka. He is responsible to the Collector and the Prant Officer whom he must obey and keep constantly informed of all political happenings, outbreaks of epidemics and other matters affecting the well-being of the people, such as any maladministration in any department or any hitch in the working of the administrative machine.

He must help guide officers of all departments in the execution of their respective duties in so far as his taluka is concerned. In fact, he is at the service of them all and forms the connecting link between the officers and the public whom they are all meant to serve. This is particularly so in departments which have not a local taluka officer of their own. The mamlatdar is also responsible for the cattle census, which really comes under the purview of the Agricultural Department. The Co-operative Department expects the mamlatdar to propagate co-operative principles in his taluka. He has to execute the awards and decrees of societies in the taluka, unless there is a special recovery officer appointed for the purpose. He has to take prompt action for the control of epidemics and to

CHAPTER 13.
—
Administrative Structure.
LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.
Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris.

render to the Public Health Officer and his assistants every help in preventing outbreaks of epidemic diseases and suppressing them when they occur.

Under executive orders, the mamlatdar has to provide the military department with the necessary provisions and conveyances when any detachment marches through the taluka.

The mamlatdar's position in relation to other taluka officers, e.g., the sub-inspector of police, the sub-registrar, the sub-assistant surgeon and the prohibition officer is not definable. Though they are not subordinate to him they are grouped round him and are expected to help and co-operate with him in their spheres.

Though the mamlatdar is not expected to work directly for local self-governing bodies, he is usually the principal source of the Collector's information about them. He is responsible for the administration of his taluka just as the Collector is responsible for the district.

In relation to the public well-being, the mamlatdar is the local representative of Government and performs generally the same functions as the Collector but on a lower plane.

Circle Officers and Circle Inspectors.

Circle Officers and Circle Inspectors.—In order to assist the mamlatdar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and village servants and to make local enquiries of every kind promptly, circle officers in the grade of *awal karkuns* and circle inspectors in the grade of *karkuns* are appointed. The circle officer certifies entries in the record of rights and thus relieves the mamlatdar of a good deal of routine work. There are some 30 to 50 villages in charge of a circle officer or circle inspector. These officers form a link between the mamlatdar and the village officers. There are generally one circle officer and three circle inspectors in each taluka. Their duties relate to :—

(1) boundary marks inspection, inspection of crops including the estimating of the *annewari*, the inspection of *tagai* works and detection of illegal occupation of Government land ;

(2) preparation of agricultural and other statistical returns, viz., crop statistics, cattle census, and water supply ;

(3) supervision of the village officers in the preparation and maintenance of the record of rights, the mutation register and the tenancy register ;

(4) examination of land revenue receipts and supervision of the revenue collection ; and

(5) such other miscellaneous work as the mamlatdar may from time to time entrust them with, e.g., enquiry into alleged encroachments.

CHAPTER 13.

Administrative Structure.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Patil.

Patil (or village headman).—The Patil or village headman is the principal official in a village.

The duties of the Patil fall under the following heads :—(*i*) revenue, (*ii*) quasi-magisterial; and (*iii*) administrative. His revenue duties are :—

(1) in conjunction with the talathi (village accountant) to collect the revenue due to Government from the rayats;

(2) to detect encroachments on Government land and protect trees and other property of Government;

(3) to execute the orders received from the taluka office in connection with recovery of revenue and other matters;

(4) to assist the talathi in maintaining properly the record of rights and village accounts and to get him to submit the periodical returns punctually; and

(5) to render assistance to high officials visiting the village for inspection work and other purposes

There are quasi-magisterial functions appertaining to the police patil. In a majority of villages the same person is both the police and the revenue patil. In some villages there are separate patils for revenue and police work. The police patil is responsible for the writing up of the birth and death register and for the care of unclaimed property found in the village. Several duties have been imposed on the police patil by the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867). The village police is under his charge, and he has authority to require all village servants to aid him in performing the duties entrusted to him. He has to dispose of the village establishment so as to afford the utmost possible security against robbery, breach of the peace and acts injurious to the public and to the village community. It is the police patil's duty to furnish the taluka magistrate with any returns or information called for and keep him constantly informed as to the state of crime and the health and general condition of the community in his village. He has to afford police officers every assistance in his power when called upon by them for assistance. Further, he has to obey and execute all orders and warrants issued to him by an executive magistrate or a police officer; collect and communicate to the district police intelligence affecting the public peace; prevent within the limits of his village the commission of offences and public nuisances; and detect and bring offenders therein, to justice. If a crime is committed within the limits of the village and the perpetrator of the crime escapes or is not known, he has to forward immediate information to the police officer in charge of the police station within the limits of which his village is situated, and himself proceed to investigate the matter and obtain all procurable evidence and forward it to the police officer. If any unnatural or sudden death occurs, or any corpse is found the police patil is bound to assemble an inquest, to be composed of two

CHAPTER 13. — Administrative Structure. LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION. *Patil.*

or more intelligent persons belonging to the village or neighbourhood. The report of the inquest has then to be forwarded by him to the police officer. He has also to apprehend any person in the village whom he has reason to believe has committed any serious offence and send him, together with all articles useful in evidence, to the police officer. The village patils are stipendiary and no *watan* lands are assigned for their remuneration.

Talathi.

The Talathi (village accountant).—The office of village accountant used generally to be held by hereditary *Kulkarnis*. In the past hereditary *Kulkarnis* were allowed, subject to certain conditions, to commute the right of service attached to the *kulkarni watan*. But very few people took advantage of the commutation of *watan*. By the enactment of the Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watan Abolition Act, all the *kulkarni watans* along with the right of service were abolished with effect from the 1st of May 1951 and talathis were appointed in place of these *Kulkarnis*. If the villages are small, one talathi is appointed for two or more villages, which are called his charge or *saza*. The talathi receives monthly salary in a time-scale of pay. His main duties are :—(1) to maintain the village accounts relating to demand, collection and arrears of land revenue, etc., the record of rights and all other village forms prescribed by Government; (2) to inspect crops and boundary marks and prepare agricultural statistics; and (3) to help the patil in the collection of land revenue, write the combined day and receipt books and other accounts and do other clerical work, including that of the police patil when the latter is illiterate. The talathi is Assistant Gram Sevak in those places where community development projects or national extension service blocks have been opened.

Village Servants.

Village Servants.—In addition to the village officers mentioned above, there are village servants. They are of two kinds, *viz.*, (1) those useful to the community, and (2) those useful to the Government.

The village servants useful to community are *Joshi, Jangam, gurav, sutar, lohar, chambhar, nhavi, kumbhar, parit, kazi, mujawar, khatib*, etc. Formerly they were given inam lands subject to the payment of annual reduced assessment called *judi*, but these inams have now been abolished under the Bombay Service Inams Useful to Community Abolition Act, 1953.

The village servants, viz., *Kazi, Mulla. Joshi*, etc., perform religious services to the village community at the time of marriage, death and the like. The *Gurav* is expected to render *Pooja* of the village deities. Amongst the village servants useful to community *Parit, Nhavi, Sutar, Chambhar, Joshi, Kumbhar, Gurav and Kazi*, etc., are still in demand. In rural areas, the above said village servants do get their share of crop, etc., from the villagers according to the customs prevailing in the villages. These servants have certain

CHAPTER 13. — Administrative Structure.

rights and privileges at ceremonial functions. In addition to the annual fixed payment in kind, cash or sometimes food is also given to the village servants on special occasions.

LAND REVENUE AND GENERAL ADMINISTRATION. *Village Servants.*

Amongst the village servants useful to Government, the village *Mahars* help in the collection of land revenue, and in registering births and deaths in taluka places. They are also required to proclaim Government orders requiring publicity in the village by beat of drum. They are paid from Government Treasury. Their appointments, etc., being noted in the Taluka Form XIII.

Khar Land Schemes.

Khar Land Schemes.—The Khar Land Development Boards Act is applicable to the district. Eighteen Khar Land Schemes were completed by the Board, in various talukas of the district, viz., Mandangad, Chiplun, Ratnagiri, Rajapur, Deogad, Malvan, Vengurla and Kudal. Out of these the Government land is included in the following schemes.

Name of the Scheme.	Area (in acres) of Government land involved in the Scheme.		
	A.	g.	a.
Girye Khar Land Scheme, Deogad Taluka.	15	4	4
Tirlot Khar Land Scheme, Deogad Taluka.	11	4	0
Kaluste-Bhile Khar Land Scheme, Chiplun Taluka.	82	15	0

Iron ore is being tapped at the village Redi in Vengurla mahal. About 1,296 acres of land have been leased to different mining companies for tapping the ore. A committee called "Redi Development Committee" has been set up by Government under G. R., No. MNL. 1756-M, dated 3rd September 1957. The mine owners and other Government officers are members and the Collector, Ratnagiri district, is the Chairman of the committee.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE DISTRICT is conducted by various statutory bodies enjoying local autonomy in different degrees. The progress of these institutions has gone on in three spheres. First, in regard to their constitution, from fully or partly nominated bodies, they have now become entirely elective. Secondly, their franchise which had gone on widening has, with the enactment of the Bombay Local Authorities Adult Franchise and Removal of Reservation of Seats Act, (XVII of 1950), reached the widest limit possible, *viz.*, universal adult franchise. Every person who—

(*a*) is a citizen of India,

(*b*) has attained the age of 21 years, and

CHAPTER 13. — Administrative Structure. LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

(c) has the requisite residence, business premises or taxation qualification,

is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter. Prior to 1950 reservation of seats for women, Muhammedans, Christians, Anglo-Indians, Harijans and Backward Tribes, had been provided in Municipalities and District Local Boards, and for women, Muhammedans, Harijans and Backward Tribes in village panchayats. Muhammedans were also provided separate electorates in local boards and municipalities before 1947. The enactment mentioned above abolished the reservation of seats for Muhammedans, Christians and Anglo-Indians but continued it for ten years from the commencement of the Constitution of India (i.e., till 26th January, 1960), for women, the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, which castes and tribes more or less represent Harijans and Backward Tribes. Thirdly, wider and wider powers have been gradually conferred on local bodies for the administration of areas under their charge.

Another recent reform is connected with the controlling authority over institutions of local self-government. Government, under the Bombay Commissioners of Divisions Act–1957 (Bombay Act No. VIII of 1958), have revived the posts of the Commissioners of Divisions since 3rd March, 1958 and the Commissioners exercise such functions under the following Acts :—

(1) The Bombay Village Sanitation Act (I of 1889).
(2) The Bombay District Vaccination Act (I of 1892).
(3) The Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901).
(4) The Bombay Town Planning Act (I of 1915).
(5) The Bombay Local Boards Act (VI of 1923).
(6) The Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act (XVIII of 1925).
(7) The Bombay Local Fund Audit Act (XXV of 1930).
(8) The Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933).

The Commissioner, Bombay Division, has jurisdiction over Ratnagiri district.

Municipalities.

The Municipalities.—The total area in the district under the administration of municipalities in 1951, was 21·61 square miles with a population of 1,01,411 (1951 Census). The Municipality of Sawantwadi which was formerly working under the Old State Government was, on its merger with the district, reconstituted by the then Government of Bombay into a municipality under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901). The town of Ratnagiri is a municipal borough governed by the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act (XVIII of 1925) and the other towns of Khed, Chiplun, Malvan and Vengurla are working under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901).

The following is the list of Municipalities in the district with their population according to the 1951 Census, area, number of wards, total number of councillors, number of seats reserved for the representatives of women, the Scheduled castes and Scheduled tribes and number of nominated seats.

Name of Municipality.	Population 1951* Census.	Area in square miles.	No. of wards.	No. of Councillors.			
				Total.	Reserved for Women.	Reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.	Unreserved.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Ratnagiri Borough Municipality ..	27,082	4.00	....	25	3	1	21
2. Khed Municipality	6,477	1.25	...	12	1	1	10
3. Chiplun Municipality	15,847	4.47	....	19	2	1	16
4. Rajapur Municipality	8,023	2.39	....	11	1	....	10
5. Malvan Municipality	19,848	2.50	....	21	2	....	19
6. Vengurla Municipality	12,717	5.00	....	20	2	1	17
7. Sawantwadi Municipality	12,417	2.00	....	20	2	....	18
Total ..	1,01,411	21.61	....	128	13	4	111

* The population given in the Census Hand-Book is of the revenue village which in area is much bigger than the municipal district administered by the municipality. But the population of the revenue village more or less approximates to the population of the municipal town as the area of the revenue village not included in the municipal district is more or less uninhabited as it is composed only of agricultural fields. The cultivators stay in the town and go to the fields when they have to perform agricultural operations.

CHAPTER 13.
—
Administrative Structure.
LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.
District Municipality.

Under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901) the State Government has power to declare by notification any local area to be a 'municipal district' and also to alter the limits of any existing municipal district. In every municipal district, a municipality has to be constituted, consisting of elected councillors, the Commissioner having power to nominate councillors to represent constituencies which fail to elect the full number allotted to them. The State Government has power to prescribe the number and the extent of the wards to be constituted in each municipal district and the number of councillors to be elected by each ward. Till 26th January, 1960, it could also reserve seats for the representation of women, the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes.

The term of office of a municipality is four years, but it can be extended to an aggregate of five years by an order of the Commissioner. Under the Act, every municipality has to be presided over by a president selected from among the councillors and either appointed by Government or elected by the municipality, if the State Government so directs. A Vice-President is elected by the councillors from among themselves, but in the case of a municipality whose President is appointed by Government, the result of the election of Vice-President is subject to the approval of Government. At present all municipalities in Ratnagiri district are allowed to elect their Presidents.

The administration of a municipal district vests in the municipality. The head of the municipality is the President, whose duty it is to :—

(*a*) preside at meetings of the municipality ;

(*b*) watch over the financial and executive administration and to perform such other executive functions as may be performed by the municipality ; and

(*c*) exercise supervision and control over the Acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the municipality.

There is provision for the compulsory constitution of a managing committee in the case of all municipalities and of a pilgrim committee in the case of those municipalities which have been specially notified by the State Government. Option is also left to municipalities to appoint other executive or consultative committees.

The Act divides municipal functions into obligatory and optional. The former include all matters essential to the health, safety, convenience and well-being of the population, while the latter are matters, which, though they are legitimate objects of local expenditure, are not considered absolutely essential. The following are among the obligatory duties laid on all municipalities ;—

(*a*) lighting public streets, places and buildings ;

(*b*) watering public streets and places;

(*c*) cleansing public streets, places and sewers, removing noxious vegetation and abating all public nuisances;

(*d*) extinguishing fires, and protecting life and property, when fires occur;

(*e*) regulating or abating offensive or dangerous trades or practices;

(*f*) removing obstructions and projections in public streets or places;

(*g*) securing or removing dangerous buildings or places and reclaiming unhealthy localities;

(*h*) acquiring and maintaining, changing and regulating places for the disposal of the dead;

(*i*) constructing, altering and maintaining public streets, culverts, municipal boundary marks, markets, slaughter houses, latrines, privies, urinals, drains, sewers, drainage works, baths, washing places, drinking fountains, tanks, wells, dams and the like,

(*j*) obtaining a supply or an additional supply of water, proper and sufficient for preventing danger to the health of the inhabitants from the insufficiency or unwholesomeness of the existing supply when such supply or additional supply can be obtained at a reasonable cost;

(*k*) registering births and deaths;

(*l*) public vaccination;

(*m*) establishing and maintaining dispensaries and providing medical relief;

(*n*) establishing and maintaining primary schools;

(*o*) disposing of night-soil and rubbish;

(*p*) constructing and maintaining residential quarters for the conservancy staff;

(*q*) providing special medical aid and accommodation for the sick in time of dangerous disease and taking measures for preventing the outbreak of the disease, and

(*r*) giving relief and establishing and maintaining relief works in time of famine or scarcity to or for destitute persons.

Municipalities may at their discretion, provide out of their funds for the following among others.—

(*a*) laying out new public streets;

(*b*) constructing, maintaining public parks, gardens, libraries, museums, halls, offices, *dharmashalas*, rest-houses and other public buildings;

(*c*) furthering educational objects;

(G.C.P.) L-B Vf 4174—36

CHAPTER 13.
—
Administrative Structure.
LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.
District Municipality.

(*d*) securing or assisting to secure suitable places for the carrying on of offensive trades;

(*e*) promoting the well-being of municipal employees and their dependants; and

(*f*) any measure likely to promote the public safety, health, convenience or education.

Municipal taxation may embrace the following items :—

(*i*) a rate on buildings and lands;

(*ii*) a tax on all or any vehicles, boats or animals used for riding, draught or burden;

(*iii*) a toll on vehicles (other than motor vehicles or trailers) and animals used as aforesaid;

(*iv*) an octroi on animals and goods;

(*v*) a tax on dogs;

(*vi*) a special sanitary cess upon private latrines, premises or compounds cleansed by municipal agency;

(*vii*) a general sanitary cess for the construction and maintenance of public latrines, and for the removal and disposal of refuse;

(*viii*) a general water-rate or a special water-rate or both;

(*ix*) a lighting tax;

(*x*) a tax on pilgrims; and

(*xi*) any other tax which the state legislature has power to impose.

Instead of (*i*), (*vii*), (*viii*), (general water-rate) and (*ix*), a consolidated tax assessed as a rate on buildings or lands may be imposed.

The rules regulating the levy of taxes have to be sanctioned by the Commissioner, who has been given powers to subject the levy to such modifications not involving an increase of the amount to be imposed or to such conditions as to application of a part or whole of the proceeds of the tax to any purpose.

The State Government may raise objections to the levy of any particular tax which appears to it to be unfair in its incidence to the interest of the general public and suspend the levy of it until such time as the objections are removed. The State Government may require a municipality to impose taxes when it appears to it that the balance of the municipal fund is insufficient for meeting any cost incurred, by any person acting under the directions of the Collector or of the Commissioner, for the execution of any work or the performance of any duties, which the Municipality is under an obligation to execute or perform but which it has failed to execute or perform.

CHAPTER 13.

Administrative Structure.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Municipalities.

Many of these taxes are levied by municipalities, but the rates at which they are levied do not enable them to meet all their expenditure. Their incomes have to be supplemented by numerous grants made by Government, both recurring and non-recurring. For instance, grants are made by Government to municipalities towards maintenance of municipal dispensaries, water-supply, roads within municipal limits and drainage schemes, expenditure on epidemics, payments of dearness allowance to staff, etc. Land revenue and non-agricultural assessment grants are also paid to municipalities. These grants add substantially to the municipal income.

Since the passing of the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947), control of primary education has virtually been transferred from district municipalities (i.e., those working under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901) and the District Local Board to the Ratnagiri District School Board and the financial liabilities of district municipalities have been limited.

The District School Board has control of primary education in its areas, but the municipalities concerned pay over to the District School Board five per cent. of the rateable value of the properties in their areas as a contribution towards meeting the expenses on primary education. Compulsory education has been introduced in all municipal areas, except in the case of the areas falling under the municipalities merged in the district from the former State of Sawantwadi.

Control over the municipalities is exercised by the Collector, the Commissioner and the State Government. The Collector has powers of entry and inspection in regard to any immoveable property occupied by a municipality or any work in progress under it. He may also call for extracts from the proceedings of a municipality or for any books or documents in its possession or under its control. He may also require a municipality to take into its consideration any objection he has to any of its acts or any information which he is able to furnish, necessitating any action on its part. These powers are delegated by the Collector to the Assistant or Deputy Collectors in charge of talukas.

The Commissioner has powers to order a municipality to suspend or prohibit, pending the orders of the State Government, the execution of any of its order or resolution, if, in his opinion, it is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to breach of peace or is unlawful. In cases of emergency, the Commissioner may provide for the execution of any work or the doing of any act which a municipality is empowered to execute or do and the immediate execution or doing of which is necessary for the health or safety of the public and may direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality.

Subject to appeal to the State Government, the Commissioner is also empowered to require a municipality to reduce the number of persons employed by it as also the remuneration assigned to any member of the staff. On the recommendation of a municipality he can remove any councillor guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties.

When satisfied that a municipality has made a default in performing any statutory duty imposed on it, the State Government may direct the Commissioner to fix a period for the performance of that duty, and if that duty is not performed within the period stipulated, the Commissioner may appoint some person to perform it and direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality. If the State Government is of the view that any municipality is not competent to perform or persistently makes default in the performance of its duties or exceeds or abuses its powers, it may either dissolve the municipality or supersede it for a specific period. The president or vice-president of a municipality or municipal borough may be removed by the State Government for misconduct or for neglect or incapacity in regard to the performance of his duties.

This Act also provides for conversion of a village panchayat into a municipality or vice-versa, amalgamation of municipal division of a municipal district into two or more municipal districts and absorption of a village panchayat area into a municipal district.

The audit of all local fund accounts is provided for by the Bombay Local Fund Audit Act (XXV of 1930). The Commissioner, on receipt of the report of the Examiner of Local Fund Accounts, may disallow any item of expenditure which appears to him to be contrary to law and surcharge the same on the person making or authorising the making of the illegal payment. Appeal against the order may be made either to the District Court or to the State Government.

Borough Municipalities.

The Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, is applied in the Ratnagiri district to the Ratnagiri municipality. This Act enacted in 1925, confers greater powers on a municipal borough than those conferred on municipalities governed by the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901.

In the case of a borough municipality a standing committee is appointed instead of the managing committee as in the case of district municipalities. The powers of the standing committee are wider than those of the managing committee. The appointment of a chief officer is made compulsory and he has been given powers under the Act in respect of control over the subordinate staff. A chief officer has to be a graduate of a recognised university or a qualified engineer

and it is laid down by section 33 that no chief officer shall be removed from office, reduced or suspended unless by the votes of at least two-thirds of the total number of Councillors.

CHAPTER 13.

Administrative Structure.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Municipalities.

Borough Municipalities.

As regards taxation, a borough municipality is empowered to levy (*a*) a drainage tax and (*b*) a special education tax, in addition to the taxes leviable by municipalities governed by the District Municipal Act. Certain powers exercised by the Commissioner, in the case of District municipalities are, in the case of borough municipalities, exercised by the State Government, namely, (1) power to sanction the rules relating to levy of taxes, (2) power to remove on the recommendation of the municipality, any councillor guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties and (3) power to extend the term of a municipality from four years to five years. The municipal borough of Ratnagiri is an authorised municipality under the Bombay Primary Education Act (XXI of 1947), i.e., it is authorised to control all approved schools within its areas and to manage primary education within its areas.

An account of the individual municipalities in the district will be found in the paragraphs dealing with the towns concerned, in Chapter 20.

District Local Board.

THE DISTRICT LOCAL BOARD, RATNAGIRI is a corporate body constituted under the Bombay Local Boards Act, 1923. The area administered by the Board, is 4,928·98 square miles and according to the census of 1951, it contained a population of 16,10,519. The board is wholly elected and is composed of 60 members of whom nine hold seats reserved for women and Harijans. Its term of office is four years, extensible by the order of the Commissioner to a term not exceeding in the aggregate five years.

The President of the board is elected by the board from among its own members. His term of office is co-extensive with the life of the board. His chief functions are: (*a*) to preside at meetings of the board; (*b*) to watch over the financial and executive administration of the board; (*c*) to exercise supervision and control over matters of executive administration, and in matters concerning the accounts and records of the board; and (*d*) subject to certain limitations prescribed by Rules framed under the Act, to dispose of all questions relating to the service of the officers and servants, and their pay, privileges and allowances. Without contravening any order of the board, he may, in case of emergency, direct the execution or stoppage of any work or the doing of any act which requires the sanction of the board.

There is also a Vice-President of the board who is elected like the President. He presides at the meetings of the board in the

CHAPTER 13. — Administrative Structure. LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT. *District Local Board.*

absence of the President, and exercises such of the powers and performs such of the duties of the President as the President may delegate to him. Pending the election of a President, or during the absence of the President on leave, he exercises the powers and performs the duties of the President. On the expiry of the term of office of a Local Board, the President and the Vice-President continue to carry out the current administrative duties of their offices until such time as a new President and Vice-President have been elected and have taken over the charge.

The Board is competent to frame regulations under sections 35 and 123, by-laws under section 62 and taxation rules under section 100. The Government have reserved the power of making rules under section 133 of the Act.

The Board has to pass its budget before 15th of February every year and to keep a minimum balance of Rs. 20,000.

The accounts of the Board are audited every year through the auditors of the Examiner, Local Accounts, Bombay.

Under the Act, it is compulsory on the board to appoint a Standing Committee. This Board has appointed following Sub-Committees in addition to the Standing Committee :—

(1) Rules Committee.

(2) Public Health Committee.

(3) Project Committee.

(4) Taluka Public Works Committees at all taluka and peta places.

(5) Dispensary Committee for each dispensary.

The Standing Committee is to consist of not more than nine and not less than seven members. The Standing Committee shall perform the functions allotted to it under the Act, and subject to any limitations or other provisions contained in rules made under section 133 (*c*) or regulations made under section 35 (*1*), shall exercise all the powers and perform all the duties of the Local Board which have not been delegated to any other committee.

The obligatory and optional functions of the board are set out in section 50 of the Local Boards Act. The chief obligatory duties are :—

(1) the construction of roads and other means of communications and the maintenance and repair of all roads and other means of communications vested in it ;

(2) the construction and repair of hospitals, dispensaries, markets, *dharmashalas* and other public buildings and the visiting, management and maintenance of these institutions;

(3) the construction and repair of public tanks, wells and water-works; the supply of water from these and from other sources; and such other measures necessary for the preservation of water for drinking and cooking purposes and protection from pollution;

(4) public vaccination, and sanitary works and measures necessary for the public health;

(5) the planting and preservation of trees by the side or in the vicinity of roads vesting in the board; and

(6) The establishment and maintenance of relief and local relief works in time of famine or scarcity.

Under the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947), and the rules framed under it, which came into force from 1st April, 1949, the District Local Board, Ratnagiri, has no longer any administrative or financial control over primary education. The only duty of the Board is to hold an election of the members of the District School Board as prescribed in the Act and to assign a revenue equal to 15 pies of the three-anna cess on land revenue and water-rate. No Local Fund Cess is levied on water rate by this Board.

The main financial resources of the board as set out in section 75 of the Bombay Local Boards Act, are :—

(1) a cess on land revenue up to a maximum of three annas in a rupee;

(2) all rents and profits accruing from property (including ferries), vested in the board,

(3) grants from Government, and

(4) octroi tax.

Under section 79 of the Act, the board has to assign to every municipality two-thirds of the cesses on land revenue levied on lands within that municipality. The board now levies the cess on land revenue at the maximum of three annas in the rupee.

Under section 118-A of the Act, the State Government has to allocate every year a grant to each District Local Board, equivalent in amount to 15 per cent. of the land revenue, including non-agricultural assessment, realised during the previous year from lands within the limits of the board, within non-village panchayat area and five per cent. in the village panchayat area.

The controlling authorities in relation to the District Local Board are the Collector; the Commissioner, Bombay Division; and the

CHAPTER 13. — Administrative Structure. LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT. *District Local Board.*

State Government. They exercise in the case of the District Local Board more or less the same powers which they have in the case of municipalities.

The following were the receipts and expenditure of the Ratnagiri District Local Board, under the various heads in 1956-57, excluding Primary Education (which is now looked after entirely by the District School Board) and deposits, advances, investments and provident fund :—

Receipts.

(1) Land Revenue	1,41,254
(2) Local Rates	10,36,521
(3) Interest	19,395
(4) Law and Justice	898
(5) Police	406
(6) Medical and Scientific	10,175
(7) Minor Departments	709
(8) Miscellaneous	1,25,237
(9) Civil Works	50,167
Total ..	13,84,762

Expenditure.

(1) Refunds and Drawbacks	14,366
(2) Interest	755
(3) Administration	3,36,216
(4) Law and Justice	155
(5) Education	1,708
(6) Medical	1,04,698
(7) Minor Departments	1,524
(8) Superannuation	18,447
(9) Miscellaneous	62,584
(10) Civil Works	6,46,256
Total ..	11,86,729

Under deposits, advances, investments, and provident fund, the receipts were Rs. 14,38,885 and the expenditure Rs. 14,85,820.

The Board has unrestricted powers of appointment of its officers and servants and their payment, but where it appoints a Chief Officer

or Engineer and such appointment is approved by Government, Government has to pay to the Board two-thirds of the salary of such officers on the pay scale prescribed by Government.

On 31st March, 1956, the Board had a total road mileage of 1,606. The maintenance of these roads is a responsibility of the Board. Of these 708 miles were metalled and 898 miles unmetalled which were almost cart tracts. The Board frames and submits yearly programmes of road improvements, new-constructions and village approach roads to Government through the Collector and the Commissioner, in connection with the grants sanctioned under State Road Fund. During the period of five years ending 31st March, 1957, the Board received Government grant of Rs. 7,94,406, under State Road Fund and the same was fully spent by the Board. Current and special repair works are generally provided for from the Local Fund. During the five years ending 31st March, 1957, the Board had improved a length of about 70 miles of roads according to the Government grants programme. The Board also gets two per cent. of the forest revenue grant and it is spent on the roads in the forest area.

Water Supply.—The village water supply works in Ratnagiri district, are executed by the Public Works Department.

The Local Board maintains two water works at Sangameshwar and Makhajan through which pipe connections are given to the public. The Board also maintains public wells as shown below :—

Name of Taluka or Mahal.	No. of wells.	No. of Small tanks.
(1) Mandangad	37	10
(2) Dapoli	87	5
(3) Khed	81	15
(4) Chiplun .. .	93	41
(5) Guhagar	14	....
(6) Sangameshwar ..	62	13
(7) Lanje	17	13
(8) Ratnagiri	35	27
(9) Rajapur	41	27
(10) Deogad	18	6
(11) Malvan	17	5
(12) Vengurla	6	1
(13) Kankavli	17	3

***Health and** Sanitation.*—The Board has not appointed a Health Officer nor has it maintained any health staff under it. The District

CHAPTER 13. — Administrative Structure. LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT. *District Local Board..*

Health Officer appointed by Government looks after the arrangements in connection with the control of epidemics. The vaccinators are appointed by the Health Officer with the sanction of the Board and vaccines and other drugs for inoculation and disinfection of water supply are sanctioned on the advice of the Health Officer. Preventive as well as curative measures are undertaken by the Health Officer through his public health staff and the staff appointed by the Board.

Hospitals and Dispensaries.—The Board maintains three dispensaries and one hospital. The expenditure in connection with the maintenance of these dispensaries was Rs. 29,473 in the year 1956-57. The dispensary at Guhagar was opened in the year 1957-58.

There are 24 subsidised medical practitioner centres under the Rural Medical Relief Scheme, three under Special Post-War Reconstruction Scheme and three under the project area in the district and the Board contributes 1/5th of the expenditure on them, to Government.

There are no veterinary dispensaries under the control of the Board.

Other amenities.—There are 87 *dharmashalas*, four bungalows and two well-furnished rest houses in charge of the District Local Board. The rest house at Malvan being situated near the Malvan port is very useful to the travelling public.

Village Panchayats.

The Village Panchayats.—Village Panchayats form local units of administration for villages under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act (III of 1959). In some of the revenue villages independent panchayats have been sanctioned. Where this is not possible, group village panchayats comprising two or more revenue villages have been formed. There were 800 village panchayats in Ratnagiri district on 31st August, 1959.

The maximum number of members of a panchayat is fifteen and the minimum number, seven. The members are to be elected on adult franchise. Till 26th January, 1960 (i.e., till the expiry of ten years from the commencement of the Constitution of India), the State Governments were given power to reserve seats (in joint electorates) for the representation of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. However, no seats may be reserved for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes unless Government is of the opinion that reservation is necessary having regard to the population in the village of such castes and tribes. Similarly, two seats are to be reserved for women in each village panchayat. The term of office of a panchayat is four years, which may be extended up to five years by the Government after consulting the panchayat mandal. Every panchayat has to elect a *sarpanch* and a deputy *sarpanch* from

Village Panchayats.

among its members. The *sarpanch* presides over the panchayat and exercises the executive powers for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the Panchayats Act and resolutions passed by the panchayat. There shall be a secretary for every panchayat or a group of panchayats as the State Government may determine, having regard to the population of the village and income of the panchayat. The secretary shall be whole-time Government servant and his salary and allowances shall not be a charge on the village panchayat funds. The qualifications, selection, appointments, training, powers, duties, transfer, remuneration and conditions of service (including disciplinary matters) of such a secretary shall be such as are prescribed by Government.

Section 45 of the Village Panchayats Act lays down that so far as the village fund at its disposal will allow and subject to the control of the panchayat mandal, it shall be the duty of the panchayat to make reasonable provision within the village in regard to all or any of the following, *viz.* :—

I. (*a*) the supply of water for domestic use and for cattle,

(*b*) the cleansing of public roads, drains, bunds, tanks and wells (other than tanks and wells used for irrigation) and other public places or works,

(*c*) sanitation, conservancy, the prevention and abatement of nuisance and the disposal of carcasses of dead animals,

(*d*) the preservation and improvement of the public health,

(*e*) the regulation by licensing or otherwise of tea, coffee and milk shops,

(*f*) provision, maintenance and regulation of burning and burial grounds,

(*g*) the lay-out and maintenance of play-grounds and of public gardens,

(*h*) the disposal of unclaimed corpses and unclaimed cattle,

(*i*) the construction and maintenance of public latrines,

(*j*) the taking of measures to prevent the outbreak, spread or recurrence of any infectious disease,

(*k*) the reclaiming of unhealthy localities,

(*l*) the removal of rubbish heaps, jungle growth, prickly pear, the filling in of unused wells, insanitary ponds, pools, ditches, pits or hollows, the prevention of water logging in irrigated areas and other improvements of sanitary conditions,

(*m*) maternity and child welfare,

(*n*) providing medical relief, and

(*o*) the encouragement of human and animal vaccination.

CHAPTER 13.
—
Administrative Structure.
LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.
Village Panchayats.

II. *In the sphere of public works.*—(*a*) the removing of obstructions and projections in public streets or places and on sites not being private property, which are open to the public, whether such sites are vested in the panchayat or belong to Government,

(*b*) the construction, maintenance and repairs of public roads, drains, bunds and bridges; provided that, if the roads, drains, bunds and bridges vest in any other public authority, such works shall not be undertaken without the consent of that authority,

(*c*) the maintenance and regulation of the use of public buildings, grazing lands, forest lands including lands assigned under section 28 of the Indian Forests Act, 1927, tanks and wells (other than tanks and wells used for irrigation), vesting in or under the control of the panchayat,

(*d*) the lighting of the village,

(*e*) the control of fairs, bazars, tonga-stands and cart-stands,

(*f*) the construction and maintenance or control of slaughter houses,

(*g*) the planting of trees along roads, in market places and other public places and their maintenance and preservation,

(*h*) the destruction of stray and ownerless dogs,

(*i*) the construction and maintenance of *dharmashalas*,

(*j*) the management and control of bathing or washing ghats which are not managed by any authority,

(*k*) the establishment and maintenance of markets,

(*l*) the construction and maintenance of houses for the conservancy staff of the panchayat,

(*m*) the provision and maintenance of camping grounds,

(*n*) the establishment, control and management of cattle pounds,

(*o*) the establishment and maintenance of works or the provision of employment in times of scarcity,

(*p*) the extension of village sites and the regulation of buildings in accordance with such principles as may be prescribed,

(*q*) the establishment and maintenance of ware-houses, and

(*r*) excavation, cleansing and maintenance of ponds for the supply of water to animals,

III. *In the sphere of education and culture.*—(*a*) the spread of education,

(*b*) the establishment and maintenance of *akhadas*, clubs and other places for recreation,

(*c*) the establishment and maintenance of theatres for promotion of art and culture,

(*d*) the establishment and maintenance of libraries and reading rooms and

(*e*) the promotion of social and moral welfare of the village including the promotion of prohibition, the removal of untouchability, amelioration of the conditions of backward classes, eradication of corruption and the discouragement of gambling and useless litigation.

IV. *In the sphere of self-defence and village defence.*—(*a*) watch and ward of the village, and of the crops therein; provided that the cost of watch and ward shall be levied and recovered by the panchayat from such persons in the village, and in such manner, as may be prescribed,

(*b*) regulating, checking and abating of offensive or dangerous trades and practices and

(*c*) rendering assistance in extinguishing fire, and protecting life and property when fire occurs.

V. *In the sphere of administration.*—(*a*) the numbering of premises,

(*b*) the drawing up of programmes for increasing the output of agricultural and non-agricultural produce in the village,

(*c*) the preparation of the statement showing the requirements of supplies and finances needed for carrying out rural development schemes,

(*d*) acting as a channel through which assistance given by the Central or State Government for any purpose reaches the village,

(*e*) making surveys,

(*f*) the control of cattle stands, threshing floors, grazing grounds and community lands,

(*g*) the establishment, maintenance and regulation of fairs, pilgrimages and festivals,

(*h*) the preparation of statistics of unemployment,

(*i*) reporting to proper authorities, village complaints which are beyond the scope of the panchayat,

(*j*) the preparation, maintenance and upkeep of panchayat records,

(*k*) the registration of births, deaths and marriages in such manner, and in such forms as may be laid down by Government by general or special order in this behalf and

(*l*) the preparation of plans for the development of the village.

CHAPTER 13.
—
Administrative Structure.
LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.
Village Panchayats

VI. *In the sphere of the welfare of the people.*—(*a*) assistance in the implementation of land reform schemes,

(*b*) the relief of the crippled, destitute and the sick,

(*c*) assistance to the residents when any natural calamity occurs,

(*d*) making arrangements for co-operative management of lands and other resources in the village, and organisation of collective farming, credit societies and multi-purpose co-operative societies,

(*e*) the reclamation of waste land and bringing waste land under cultivation with the previous permission of the State Government,

(*f*) organising voluntary labour for community works and works for the uplift of the village, and

(*g*) opening of fair price shops.

VII. *In the sphere of agriculture and preservation of forests.*—(*a*) the improvement of agriculture and establishment of model agricultural farms,

(*b*) the establishment of granaries,

(*c*) bringing under cultivation waste and fallow lands vested by Government in the panchayat,

(*d*) securing minimum standards of cultivation in the village with a view to increasing agricultural production,

(*e*) ensuring conservation of manurial resources, preparing of compost and sale of manure,

(*f*) the establishment and maintenance of nurseries for improved seeds and provision of implements and stores,

(*g*) the production and use of improved seeds,

(*h*) the promotion of co-operative farming,

(*i*) crop experiments and crop protection,

(*j*) minor irrigation and

(*k*) raising, preservation and improvement of village forest.

VIII. *In the sphere of breeding and protection of cattle.*—Improvement of cattle and cattle breeding and the general care of livestock.

IX. *In the sphere of village industries.*—The promotion, improvement and encouragement of cottage and village industries.

X. *In the sphere of the collection of land revenue.*—(*a*) collection of land revenue when so empowered by the State Government under section 169, and

(*b*) maintenance of village records relating to land revenue in such manner and in such forms as may be prescribed from time to time by or under any law relating to land revenue.

CHAPTER 18.

Administrative Structure.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Village Panchayats.

Sub-section (2) of section 45 lays down that a panchayat with the previous sanction of the Chairman of the Panchayat Mandal may make provision for carrying, outside the village, any work of the nature specified in sub-section (*1*).

Under section 124. (1) it shall be competent to a panchayat to levy all or any of the following taxes and fees at such rates as may be decided by it (but subject to the minimum and maximum rates which may be fixed by the State Government) and in such manner and subject to such exemptions as may be prescribed, namely :—

(*i*) a tax on buildings (whether subject to payment of agricultural assessment or not) and lands (which are not subject to payment of agricultural assessment) within the limits of the village,

(*ii*) octroi,

(*iii*) a pilgrim tax,

(*iv*) a tax on fairs, festivals, and other entertainments,

(*v*) a tax on bicycles and on vehicles drawn by animals,

(*vi*) subject to the provisions of article 276 of the Constitution a tax on the following professions, trades, callings or employments, :—

(*a*) shop-keeping and hotel-keeping,

(*b*) any trade or calling (other than agriculture) which is carried on with the help of machinery run by steam, oil, or electric power or by manual labour,

(*c*) the profession or calling of brokers in cattle markets.

(*vii*) a general sanitary cess for the construction or maintenance, or both, of public latrines and for the removal and disposal of refuse,

(*viii*) a general water rate which may be imposed in the form of a rate assessed on buildings and lands or in any other form as may be best adapted to the circumstances of any class of cases,

(*ix*) any other tax (not being a toll on motor vehicles or trailers, save as provided by section 14 of the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, 1935), which the State Legislature has, under the Constitution, power to impose in the State and which has been sanctioned by the State Government,

(*x*) a fee on markets and weekly bazars,

(*xi*) a fee on cart-stands and tonga-stands,

(*xii*) a special water rate for water supplied by the panchayat through pipes. which may be imposed in any form including that of charges for such water supplied, fixed in such mode or modes as shall be best adapted in the circumstances of any class of cases,

CHAPTER 18. — Administrative Structure. LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT. *Village Panchayats.*

(*xiii*) a fee for the supply of water from wells and tanks vesting in it, for purposes other than domestic use and for cattle,

(*xiv*) a fee for temporary erection on, or putting up projections over, or temporary occupation of, any public street or place,

(*xv*) a special sanitary cess upon private latrines, premises or compounds cleansed by the panchayat agency,

(*xvi*) a fee for cleansing a cess-pool constructed on land whether belonging to the panchayat or not and

(*xvii*) a fee for grazing cattle on grazing lands vesting in a panchayat.

The State Government makes every year a grant, not less than 25 per cent. and not exceeding 30 per cent. of the ordinary land revenue collected in the revenue year immediately preceding, within the limits of the village. Thus each village panchayat will have a village fund and the following items will form part of it (*vide section* 57) : -

(1) there shall be in each village, a fund, which shall be called the village fund.

(2) the following shall be paid into, and shall form part of the village fund, namely :—

(*a*) the amount which may be allotted to the village fund by the State Government under the provisions of section 191 of the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901,

(*b*) the proceeds of any tax or fee imposed under section 124,

(*c*) the proceeds of a tax on professions, trades, callings and employments assigned to the panchayat under clause (*b*) of sub-section (*1*) of section 102-C of the Bombay Local Boards Act 1923,

(*d*) all sums ordered to be paid as compensation realised under sections 80 and 81,

(*e*) all other sums ordered by a Court. to be placed to the credit of the village fund,

(*f*) the sale proceeds of all dust, dirt, dung refuse or carcasses of animals, except in so far as any person is entitled to the whole or a portion thereof.

(*g*) sums contributed to the village fund by the State Government or a district local board,

(*h*) all sums received by way of loans from the State Government or the district local board or out of the District Village Development Fund, constituted under section 133,

(*i*) all sums received by way of gift or contributions by the panchayat,

(j) the income or proceeds of any property vesting in the panchayat,

(k) fees levied for the institutions of suits and cases under section 90,

(l) the net proceeds (after deducting the expenses of assessment and collection) of the cess authorised by section 127,

(m) all sums realised by way of rent or penalty otherwise than as the amount of any fine in criminal case, and

(n) all sums realised as pound fees after deducting the expenses,

There is a District Village Development Fund established out of the contributions made by the *panchayats*. The fund will be utilised for the purpose of granting loans to panchayats and for the payment of interest on contributions made by panchayats,

Nyaya Panchayat.

There shall be a nyaya panchayat for the administration of civil and criminal justice in a group of villages not less than five.

The *nyaya panchayat* shall consist of one person elected out of the members of *gramsabha* by each panchayat. This election is made immediately after the election of the sarpanch and the deputy sarpanch. The sarpanch and deputy sarpanch are ineligible to be elected as members of *nyaya panchayat*. The term of office of the member of the *nyaya panchayat* shall expire with the term of the panchayat which elected him. The *nyaya panchayat* shall sit for a suit or trial of a suit or case in the village where such suit or case has been instituted. It shall be presided over at each such place by one of its members. In case the *nyaya panchayat* is incompetent to exercise or has been guilty of the abuse of its powers, the State Government may withdraw all or any of the powers vested in or conferred on such *nyaya panchayat*. The State Government has power to remove a member of the nyaya panchayat for reasons of misconduct in the discharge of his duties or for any disgraceful conduct or for neglect, refusal or incapacity in regard to the performance of his duties as member of the nyaya panchayat.

The secretary of the village panchayat where the sitting of the *nyaya panchayat* is held acts as the judicial clerk of the *nyaya panchayat*.

[As per the new Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958, *nyaya panchayats* are still to be constituted in this district, (1959)].

The *nyaya panchayats* are to try suits, all or any of those stated in section 73—

(a) suits of money due on contracts not affecting any interest in immovable property,

(b) suits for the recovery of moveable property or for the value thereof,

(c) suits for compensation for the wrongful taking and injuring moveable property—where the amount or value does not exceed one hundred rupees.

Nyaya Panchayat.

With the written consent of both the parties recorded in the presence of the *nyaya panchayat* suits of the nature recorded above but the value of which does not exceed Rs. 250, shall be triable by such *nyaya panchayat*.

The State Government may by notification in the official gazette direct that any *panchayat* may try any suit of the nature described above up to such value exceeding Rs. 100 as may be specified in the notification but not exceeding Rs. 250.

Suits of the nature specified in section 74, shall not be brought before the nyaya panchayat.

A *nyaya panchayat* shall take cognizance and try all or any of the offences subject to the provisions of sub-section (5) of section 64 of the Village Panchayats Act; under sections 269, 277, 283, 323, 352, 358, 379, 426, 447, 448, 461, 504, 506, (first part) and 510, of the Indian Penal Code; under sections 4, 5, 5-A, 6, 6-C, and 7 of the Cruelty to Animals Act, 1890, under sections 3, 4, 5, 5-A, 5-B of the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act, 1946; under sections 22, 23, 24, 25 of the Bombay District Vaccination Act, 1892; and under sections 35, 36, of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947.

No pleader or *vakil* or *mukhtyar* and no advocate or attorney of High Court, shall be permitted to appear on behalf of any party to any suit or case before a *nyaya panchayat*.

No appeal shall lie against the decree or order passed by a *nyaya panchayat* in a suit or case. But on an application made by any of the parties or of its own motion a District Court in a suit or a Sessions Court in a case may call for, and, examine the record of proceedings of a *nyaya panchayat* for satisfying as to the legality or propriety of any decree or order passed or as to regularity of the proceedings held by such *nyaya panchayats*. The District or Sessions Court may modify, cancel or reverse the order. The period for filing an application, is 30 days. The order of the District or Sessions Court shall be final and shall not be subject to any appeal or revision of review.

District Village Panchayat Mandal.

Powers of supervision and control of the administration over *panchayats* are given to the District Village Panchayat Mandal, constituted under section 134. It has power to call for information and to compel the panchayat to take into consideration any objection it has to any acts of the panchayat, either of commission or ommission. It can compel the panchayat to reduce the number of staff maintained by it or remuneration paid to them. The Collector has powers of suspension and prohibition in respect of execution of any order or resolution of a panchayat which in his opinion is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to breach of peace. In case of emergency, the Collector may also provide for the execution of any work or the doing of any act which a *panchayat* is

CHAPTER 13.

Administrative Structure.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Village Panchayats.

empowered to execute or to do, and the immediate execution or doing of which is, in his opinion necessary for the health or safety of the public, and may direct that the expenses shall forthwith be paid by the *panchayat*.

District Village Panchayat Mandal.

The audit of the accounts of the *panchayat* shall be carried out by the State Government. A copy of the audit note shall be forwarded to the village *panchayat* and Panchayat Mandal within one month of completing the audit. The *panchayat* is to remove the defects or irregularities that have been pointed out in audit note and shall send to the *Panchayat Mandal* within three months an intimation of having done so and shall supply explanation in regard to defects or omissions. The *Panchayat Mandal* shall accept the intimation or explanation and recommend to the Collector to withdraw the objection. The Collector after considering the report of the *Panchayat Mandal* and after making further enquiry shall disallow the item which appears contrary to the law and surcharge the same on the person making or authorising the making of illegal payment and if the amount surcharged is not paid within one month, the Collector shall recover it as arrears of land revenue and credit it to the village fund. Any person aggrieved by an order of surcharge made by the Collector may within one month from the receipt by him of the decision of the Collector apply to the District Court to modify or set aside such order, and the Court after taking such evidence as it thinks necessary, may confirm, modify or remit such surcharge and make such order as to costs.

In default of performance of duty specified in sub-section (*1*) of section 45, the Panchayat Mandal may order that the duty be performed within a specified period and if the duty is not performed the Panchayat Mandal may appoint a person to perform it and direct that the expenses be paid by the *panchayat*.

In case the *Panchayat Mandal* fails or neglects to take action the State Government or the person authorised may take such action as could have been taken by the *Panchayat Mandal*.

The State Government has also power after consultation with the *Panchayat Mandal* to dissolve or supersede a *panchayat* if in its opinion the panchayat had exceeded or abused its powers or made persistent default in the performance of its duties or has persistently disobeyed any of the orders of the Collector.

If a *panchayat* is superseded all the powers and duties of the panchayat will be exercised by a person or persons appointed by the State Government.

District Village Panchayat Officer.

Under the provisions of section 136, the State Government is to appoint for one or more districts, a District Village Panchayat Officer in the grade of District Deputy Collector for the development of the

CHAPTER 18.

Administrative Structure.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Village Panchayats.

District Village Panchayat Officer.

village *panchayats*. He is also the secretary of the District Village Panchayat Mandal. Several duties have been placed on this officer and he is expected to do everything that is possible to popularise the village local self-Government and to make the working of village panchayats really effective. He has to exercise supervision over the affairs of panchayats already established in the district, recommend to the Collector the establisment of new panchayats, explain the panchayats the system of panchayat administration, watch the actual working of the panchayats and give them guidance if their working is not proper and persuade women to take active interest in the affairs of *panchayats*. He is to hold annual gathering of the *panchayats sarpanchas* and members, so that they become aware of the activities of one another. An annual report of the activities of the *panchayats* has to be prepared by him and submitted to the Collector before 15th May and within a fortnight thereafter the Collector is to forward that report with his remarks to the Commissioner, every year.

CHAPTER 14.

Justice and Peace.

JUDICIAL.

CHAPTER 14—JUSTICE AND PEACE.

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

District Judge.

THE DISTRICT JUDGE, RATNAGIRI, is the highest judicial authority in the district and presides over the District Court. Under Article 233 of the Constitution of India, appointments, postings and promotions of district judges* are to be made by the Governor in consultation with the High Court; and under Article 234, appointments of persons other than district judges to the judicial service† are made by the Governor in accordance with rules made by him after consultation with the State Public Service Commission and with the High Court. Under Article 235, the control over the district courts and the courts subordinate thereto including the posting and promotion of, and the grant of leave to, persons belonging to the judicial service and holding any post inferior to the post of district judge, is vested in the High Court.

Civil Courts.

The District Court is the principal court of original jurisdiction in the district, and it is also a court of appeal from all decrees, and orders upto the value of Rs. 10,000 passed by the subordinate courts, from which an appeal can be preferred. The district judge exercises general control over all the civil courts and their establishment and inspects the proceedings of these courts.

There is no permanent Assistant Judge attached to the District Court, Ratnagiri. Whenever work increases, appointment of an Assistant Judge is made temporarily. Since June 9, 1958, an Assistant Judge and Additional Sessions Judge is temporarily appointed in this court.

* Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, the term "District Judge" includes additional district judge, assistant district judge, chief judge of a small causes court, sessions judge, additional sessions judge and assistant sessions judge.

† Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, "judicial service" is described as a service consisting exclusively of persons intended to fill the post of district judge and other civil judicial posts inferior to the post of district judge.

CHAPTER 14. — Justice and Peace. JUDICIAL. Civil Courts.

Subordinate to the District Judge there are two cadres of Civil Judges, Junior Division and Senior Divisicn. The jurisdiction of a Civil Judge (Junior Division) extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature wherein the subject-matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value, while that of a Civil Judge (Senior Division) extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature irrespective of the value of the subject-matter. Appeals in suits or proceedings wherein the subject-matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value are taken to the District Court, while in those wherein the subject-matter exceeds in value Rs. 10,000 are taken direct to the High Court.

There are in all 12 civil courts under the control of the District Judge, Ratnagiri. At Ratnagiri there is one civil court of senior division. Outside Ratnagiri there are the courts of the Civil Judge (Junior Division) and the same are located at Dapoli, Khed, Chiplun, Devrukh, Rajapur, Deogad, Kankavli, Malvan, Vengurla, Sawantwadi and Kudal. The civil courts of Dapoli-Khed, Kankavli-Deogad and Vengurla-Kudal are linked courts and one judge presides over two courts by rotation. The civil judge at Dapoli-Khed, Kankavli-Deogad and Vengurla-Kudal are also *ex-officio* Magistrates of the first class and they look after criminal proceedings.

There is one court of a Judicial Magistrate of the First Class at Chiplun.

Criminal Courts.

The District Judge, Ratnagiri, is also the Sessions Judge of the district. The Sessions Judge tries criminal cases which are committed to his court by the civil judge-*cum*-judicial magistrates and by judicial magistrates after preliminary enquiry and hears appeals against the decisions of the subordinate magistrates.

The present Assistant Judge exercises the powers of an Additional Sessions Judge on the criminal side. The Sessions Judge and Additional Sessions Judge may pass any sentence authorised by law, but any sentence of death passed by any such judge is subject to confirmation by the High Court. An Assistant Sessions Judge can pass any sentence authorised by law except a sentence of death or of transportation or imprisonment for a term exceeding seven years.

Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions.

The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951) has classified the magistracy of the State into two categories, viz., Judicial Magistrates and Executive Magistrates. Judicial Magistrates are of the following classes :—Presidency Magistrates; Magistrates of the First Class; Magistrates of the Second Class; Magistrates of the Third Class; and Special Judicial Magistrates. Executive Magistrates fall under the following classes :— District Magistrates; Sub-Divisional Magistrates; Taluka Magistrates; Presidency Magistrates specially empowered by the State Government; and Special Executive Magistrates. The State Government may, in consultation with the High Court, direct any two or more Judicial Magistrates in any place outside Greater Bombay to sit together as a bench and invest such bench with the powers of a Magistrate of the First, Second or Third Class.

CHAPTER 14.

Justice and Peace

JUDICIAL.

Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions.

Special Judicial Magistrates are appointed by the State Government in consultation with the High Court to try particular cases or classes of cases or cases generally in any local area. Special Executive Magistrates are appointed by the State Government for particular areas, or for the performance of particular functions.

All Judicial Magistrates and Benches of Judicial Magistrates are subordinate to the Sessions Judge who may from time to time make rules or give special orders as to the distribution of business among them.

All Executive Magistrates are subordinate to the District Magistrate. Their powers and functions are detailed in paragraphs III-A, IV, and V of schedule III of the Criminal Procedure Code (Act V of 1898). Appeals from orders requiring security for keeping the peace or for good behaviour, however, lie from Executive Magistrates to the Court of Session (section 406, Criminal Procedure Code). The State Government has power by notification to direct that appeals from such orders made by a Magistrate other than the District Magistrate shall lie to the District Magistrate and not to the Court of Session. Again, under section 406-A of the Code any person aggrieved by an order refusing to accept or rejecting a surety under section 122 may appeal against such order, if made by a District Magistrate, to the Court of Session. Under section 435(4), the High Court is empowered to call for and examine the record of any proceeding under section 143 (prohibition of repetition of nuisance), 144 (temporary order in urgent cases of nuisance or apprehended danger), and 145 (procedure where dispute as to immovable property is likely to cause breach of the peace) even though such proceeding was before an Executive Magistrate.

The ordinary powers of the Magistrates of the Third, Second and First Class are detailed in Schedule III, parts I, II, and III respectively of the Criminal Procedure Code. They may be invested with additional powers by the State Government in consultation with the High Court, and these additional powers are detailed in Schedule IV of the Code.

The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act came into force on the 1st July 1953. There is only one post of the Judicial Magistrate of First Class at Chiplun and it is at present (October 1958) kept vacant.

Other Law Officers.

The following are the other law officers of Government functioning in Ratnagiri district :—

District Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor ;

Assistant Government Pleader ;

Assistant Public Prosecutor ; and

Sub-Government Pleaders, one at each of the following taluka places :—

Dapoli, Khed, Chiplun, Devrukh, Rajapur, Deogad-Kankavli, Malvan, Vengurla, Sawantwadi and Kudal.

CHAPTER 14. — Justice and Peace. JUDICIAL. Number of Legal Practitioners.

In December 1957, one Advocate and 140 Pleaders were practising in the various Civil Courts in the district.

Nyaya Panchayats.

Under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933), nyaya panchayats have been formed in a number of villages and these institutions are empowered to try petty civil suits and criminal cases. The constitution and powers of the panchayats are detailed in Chapter VI, sections 37 to 58-A, of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1933. An appeal lies to the District Court against a decree passed by a nyaya panchayat in any suit and to the Sessions Court against any order in any case.

Statistics of Civil Courts.

In Ratnagiri district, in the various Civil Courts and in the District Court, 1,579 suits were pending at the end of the year 1956. In the year 1957, 1,414 suits were instituted (1,389 in Civil Courts and 25 in District Court) and 39 suits were received either as revived or received otherwise. 1,509 suits were disposed of and 1,523 suits were pending at the end of the year 1957. Of the 1,414 suits instituted, 711 were either for money or movable property. Out of the total number of 1,414 suits, 648 were of value not exceeding Rs. 100, 632 were of value above Rs. 100 but not exceeding Rs. 1,000, 89 were of value above Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000, 17 were of value above Rs. 5,000 and 28 suits the value of which cannot be estimated in money. The total value of 1,414 suits instituted was Rs. 5,19,399·33.

Out of 1,509 suits disposed of, 311 were disposed of without trial (140 under order IX, rules 3 and 8 Civil Procedure Code and 171 otherwise), 323 exparte, 141 on admission of claims, 187 by compromise, 521 after full trial and 26 by transfer.

There were 300 appeals (including Miscellaneous and Debt Adjustment Board Appeals) pending at the end of the year 1956. During the year 1957, 194 appeals (including Miscellaneous and Debt Adjustment Board Appeals) were instituted; 146 were disposed of and 348 appeals were pending at the end of the year 1957.

Of the 146 appeals disposed of during the year 1957, 13 were either dismissed or not prosecuted; 69 confirmed, 19 modified, 31 reversed and 14 remanded for retrial.

In 1957, there were 4,508 offences reported in the Criminal Courts of the Ratnagiri district. Persons under trials numbered 14,269; persons whose cases were disposed of 8,640; persons discharged or acquitted 5,654; persons convicted 2,865; persons committed to Sessions or referred to higher tribunals 81; persons died or escaped or transferred to another courts 30; persons imprisoned 800 and persons fined 2,220 (out of 2,220, 464 were also sentenced to imprisonment); 259 were asked to give security and 60 were released on due admonition.

Statistics of Sessions Courts.

During 1957, in the Sessions Court 24 offences were reported, 111 persons were under trials. Cases of 79 persons were disposed of during the year, either by acquitting, discharging or convicting. Out of 79 persons, four were awarded transportation for life, 5 were imprisoned and two were fined and imprisoned.

CHAPTER 14.

Justice and Peace.

JUDICIAL.

Revenue and Expenditure.

The following are the figures showing the revenue and expenditure of the Judicial Department in Ratnagiri district for the year 1857-58 :—

Revenue.	Rs. nP.
(1) Sale proceeds of unclaimed and escheated property	41,918·00
(2) Fines by Civil and Sessions Courts ..	22,497·00
(3) Cash receipts of record rooms	23,947·00
(4) Miscellaneous receipts	2,562·00
	90,924·00

Expenditure.	Rs. nP.
(1) Pay of Officers	63,190·10
(2) Pay of Establishment	2,47,117·86
(3) Pay of Process Serving Establishment ..	54,473·76
(4) Other Expenditure	5,07,540·05
Total ..	8,72,321·77

THE POLICE DEPARTMENT.

POLICE.

THE PRIMARY FUNCTIONS OF POLICE are prevention and detection of crime, maintenance of law and order, apprehension of offenders, escorting and guarding of prisoners, treasure or private or public property of which they may be placed in charge, and prosecution of criminals. They have, however, various other duties to perform, such as control of traffic, serving of summonses and warrants in criminal cases, destruction of stray dogs, inspection of explosives and poison shops and extinguishing fires. Among their other miscellaneous duties are giving aid to displaced persons and pilgrims, verification of character, making passports and naturalisation enquiries etc.

Organisation.

Under section 4 of the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951) superintendence of the police force throughout the State vests in and is exercisable by the State Government. In exercise of powers under section 6 of the said Act, the State Government appoints an Inspector-General of Police for the direction and supervision of the police force. He is thus the head of the police force with his headquarters at Bombay. It is within his jurisdiction to exercise control over recruitment, education, housing and equipment of the police force and to regulate its internal organisation and method of its working. He is assisted in his office by two Assistant Inspectors-General of Police (officers of the rank of District Superintendent of Police).

CHAPTER 14.

Justice and Peace.

POLICE.

For the purpose of administration, Maharashtra State has been divided into four police ranges besides Greater Bombay, each in charge of a Deputy Inspector-General. They correspond with the four divisions for which divisional officers have been appointed. In Greater Bombay, the Commissioner of Police, who is second in the police hierarchy, is in charge of the city police force. The State C. I. D. is under the control of an officer of the rank of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police. Similarly the State Reserve Police Force Groups and Police Training Schools are in charge of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police at the Headquarters. Each Range in the State is divided into districts, each corresponding with the revenue district and is in charge of a District Superintendent of Police. Under section 17 (*1*) of the Bombay Police Act, the District Magistrate has control over the District Superintendent of Police and the police force of a district and decides questions of policy and of administration of law within the district. However he does not interfere in the questions of recruitment, internal economy or organisation of the district force.

Regular Duties.

The District Superintendent of Police, Ratnagiri, is the executive head of the police force in the district. His primary duties are to keep the force under his control properly trained, efficient and contented and to ensure by constant supervision that prevention, investigation and detection of crime in his district are properly and efficiently dealt with by the force.

Each district is divided into sub-divisions, which number from two to three in a district. Each sub-division is in charge of an officer of the rank of Assistant Superintendent of Police or Deputy Superintendent of Police who is responsible for all matters pertaining to crime in the area under his charge. Under the general orders of the Superintendent, he is responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the officers and men in his division. He has to hold detailed inspections of police stations and out-posts in his charge at regular intervals.

Each sub-division has one or more inspectors, who are engaged in the detection of crime and supervision of bad characters and gangs in their circles. They are also utilised for supervising and co-ordinating crime work of different police stations in their circles.

At district headquarters, the District Superintendent is assisted by an Inspector who is termed as Home Inspector. In his capacity as Personal Assistant to the District Superintendent, he supervises the work of the District Superintendent's office and at headquarters during the absence of the Superintendent and the Sub-divisional Officer. He also does all the routine work at the headquarters for the District Superintendent of Police. Besides, there are inspectors for local intelligence and local crime branches in bigger districts.

Each district is divided into a number of police stations. A Sub-Inspector of police is in-charge of a police station and he is responsible for prevention and detection of crime and for executing orders

of his superiors and maintaining discipline among the police force under him. He has head constables and constables as his subordinates. The head constables are to report to the Sub-Inspector the occurance of all crimes in their beats and to assist him in investigation and detection of crime. When in-charge of a particular post or circle of villages, the head constable acts in all police matters in close collaboration with the heads of the village police. When attached to the police station, he holds charge in the absence of the Sub-Inspector and looks to all routine work including investigation of crime. The constables perform such duties as ordered by the head constables and superior police officers.

With a view to eradicating the evil of corruption and for a more effective implementation of the prohibition policy of Government, the Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Force has been created under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence, designated as Director, Anti-corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau, Maharashtra State, Bombay. In every district at least one Sub-Inspector of police attached to this force is stationed. Corresponding to the four ranges in the mofussil, there are four units of this force with headquarters at Bombay, Poona, Aurangabad and Nagpur, each in-charge of a Deputy Superintendent of Police.

Ratnagiri district is divided into two sub-divisions, northern and southern. The northern division is under direct control of the District Superintendent of Police, while the southern division is in-charge of a sub-divisional police officer. In addition to the police headquarters at Ratnagiri, there are in all 16 police stations and 27 outposts in the district. Out of the former, 11 are taluka police stations, four mahal police stations and one sub-police station.

Strength.

The original strength of the district police was 940 in 1948 before the merger of Sawantwadi State. In 1958, the composition of the force was as follows :—

Superintendent of Police	1
Inspectors	3
Sub-Inspectors	21
Unarmed Head Constables	135
Armed Head Constables	87
Unarmed Constables	375
Armed Constables	382

That is 25 Officers and 979 men; including a few temporary officers and men the total strength was 32 Officers and 1,116 men.

In addtion there is a civil mechanic for the motor transport section and one radio mechanic, one head wireless operator and two wireless operators for the state wireless station at Ratnagiri. There are also four launch drivers, two unqualified drivers, two *tandels* and eight *khalashis* on the motor launches for detection of prohibition work and checking smuggling on the border.

CHAPTER 14. Justice and Peace. POLICE.

The expenditure on the establishment in the district for 1958-59 was Rs. 16,37,590. The ratio of the police to the area and population worked out to one policeman to 4·29 square miles and 1,464 persons.

Recruitment.

Recruitment to the cadre of Assistant Superintendents of Police who belong to the Indian Police Service is made by the Government of India on the recommendation of the Union Public Service Commission. On their appointment to the service they are attached to the Central Police Training College, Mount Abu, for training for a period of one year and after successful completion of training they are sent to the States concerned for undergoing further training. In Maharashtra State, the probationers are attached to districts for practical training for 5½ months and at the Police Training School, Nasik for 4½ months before they are appointed to hold independent charge as Sub-Divisional Police Officers. An Assistant Superintendent of Police is considered eligible for promotion to a senior post in the Indian Police Service cadre after completion of four years' service from the date of joining the State service.

Seventy per cent. of the total number of appointments on the sanctioned cadre of Deputy Superintendents of Police are filled in by promotion from the lower ranks of the district police force and the remaining 30 per cent. by direct recruitment which is made by the State Government or candidates recommended by the Maharashtra Public Service Commission. Candidates appointed by direct recruitment are attached to the Police Training School, Nasik, for training and are kept on probation for a period of three years. During the first two years of their probationary period, they are required to pass a departmental examination prescribed by Government, after which they are required to undergo practical training in the districts for a period of one year. They are considered for promotion to Indian Police Service cadre after they put in eight years service as Deputy Superintendent of Police.

Appointments of inspectors of police are made by the Inspector-General of Police from amongst the Sub-Inspectors of police who are found fit for promotion. No direct recruitment is ordinarily made.

Recruitment of Sub-Inspectors is made by the Inspector-General of Police, both by promotion of officers from the lower ranks of the district police force and by direct recruitment. Fifty per cent. of the vacancies are filled in by direct recruitment. Of the remaining 50 per cent., 25 per cent. of the vacancies are filled in by departmental candidates passing the police Sub-Inspector's course at the Central Police Training School, Nasik, and the remaining 25 per cent. by promotion of officers from lower ranks who pass the departmental examination qualifying for the post of Sub-Inspectors.

Candidates for direct recruitment may be either from outside the police or from the police department. These candidates are, in the first instance, selected for training in the Police Training School,

Nasik, as Police Sub-Inspectors. The selection is made by the Inspector-General of Police assisted by a committee constituted of the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, a Deputy Inspector-General of Police and the Principal, Central Police Training School, Nasik.

Police constables are recruited directly, and head constables generally from the ranks of constables. However, to attract better men, recruitment of head constables is made direct from qualified candidates upto one-third of the vacancies.

Literacy.

Among the officers and men in the Ratnagiri district none was illiterate in 1958.

Equipment.

The district had (in 1958) a fleet of eight motor vehicles, including one vehicle allotted for prohibition work.

The wireless grid had a static wireless station with three receivers and two transmitters. In addition to the above, there were eight wireless stations installed at taluka places with trans-receivers.

The whole strength of armed police was provided with ·410 muskets and the rifle squad with ·303 rifles.

State Reserve constabulary.

With a view to provide the armed force which may be required at any place in the State to deal with any disturbance or emergency, the State Reserve Police, trained more or less on military lines and equipped with modern weapons, has been organised and stationed in groups at important centres in the State, each group being under the control of a commandant of the rank of Superintendent of Police assisted by the necessary staff of officers of different ranks. The groups are provided with wireless sets and motor transport.

Figures of crime.

In 1958, the following were the figures of crime in the Ratnagiri district :—

(a) Total number of non-cognizable crime .. 1,239

(b) Total number of cognizable cases reported to the police. 5,233

(c) Total number of cognizable cases dealt with by magistrates. 1,297

The following figures represented the variations in crime during the quinquennium 1954-58.

	1954.	1955.	1956.	1957.	1958.
(a) Non cognizable crime ...	2,982	2,067	1,985	1,619	1,239
(b) Police cognizable crime ...	2,462	3,115	3,801	4,597	5,178
(c) Reported cognizable crime.	2,546	3,190	3,839	4,678	5,233
(d) Magisterial cognizable crime.	84	59	43	46	100

CHAPTER 14.

Justice and Peace.

POLICE.

Real serious crimes, including (1) murders and cognate crime, (2) dacoities, (3) robberies, (4) house-breaking and thefts, (5) thefts including cattle thefts, (6) receiving stolen property, and (7) rioting varied as follows from 1949 to 1958 :—

1949	444	1954	541
1950	577	1955	457
1951	696	1956	501
1952	777	1957	565
1953	697	1958	471

Incidence of cognizable crime per thousand persons varied as follows, during the years (1949-58) :—

1949	0·94	1954	1·48
1950	1·06	1955	1·86
1951	1·09	1956	2·27
1952	1·53	1957	2·73
1953	1·38	1958	3·05

Prosecuting Staff and Prosecution.

In 1958, the prosecuting staff in the district consisted of six police prosecutors. The total number of cases conducted by the prosesuting staff in 1958, was 1,198 out of which 651 ended in conviction.

Housing.

Of the total strength of 1,116 policemen (permanent and temporary), 822 were housed in Government quarters. Of the 27 Sub-Inspectors, six were provided with Government quarters.

Hospital.

A small dispensary has been started at the headquarters during 1958. An Honorary lady doctor is in charge of this dispensary.

Welfare Work.

A grocery shop has been opened in 1954 and is being conducted under the management of the police co-operative credit society, for the benefit of policemen at the headquarters and in the town.

Village Police.

The district police is helped by the village police. Under the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867), the control of the village police is with the District Magistrate. He may, however, delegate any of his authority to the District Superintendent of Police. There are 1,553 villages in the district. Each village or group of villages has a police patil. It is the duty of the police patil to maintain law and order in the village. He is also required to collect information regarding suspicious strangers and send it to the police station. He has to keep a strict watch over the movements of bad characters under surveillance of the police. He is to give information to the police station of any offence committed in the village. When the patrolling policeman goes to the village, he has to submit a report about all the happenings in the village. It is the duty of the police patil to render assistance to any sick traveller.

CHAPTER 14.

Justice Police and Peace.

Home Guards.

The Home Guards is a voluntary body organised under the Bombay Home Guards Act, III of 1947, and is intended to supplement the ordinary police force in relation to the protection of person, security of property and public safety and such other services to the public as they may be called upon to perform. It is essentially a civilian body but is nevertheless bound by discipline of a standard equal to that of any military organisation. The district unit of the home guards organisation consists of a Commandant and several subordinate officers in command of divisions, companies, platoons, sections, etc. Appointments of home guards are made by the District Commandant from amongst the persons who are fit and willing to serve as home guards, and appointments of officers are made after a period of service in the ranks on consideration of merit. Home guards receive initial training in subjects like *lathi* training, weapon training, control of traffic, prohibition and excise laws, first-aid, mob fighting, guard and escort drill etc. A home guard gets the powers and privileges and discharges the obligations of a home guard under the Home Guards Act and the rules made thereunder only when called out for duty under the orders of the District Superintendent of Police. At other times, he is on the same footing as an ordinary citizen. When he is called out to aid the police, he gets duty allowance of not less than Rs. 2 and not more than Rs. 3 per day, as determined by the Commandant.

The Ratnagiri District Home Guards Unit was started in 1947. The organisation in the district (1958) consisted of a district commandant, second-in-command, district quarter master, staff officer, accounts staff officer and training officer. Home guards centres have been opened at the following 12 places in the district, each under an officer commanding (1) Dapoli, (2) Khed, (3) Chiplun, (4) Guhagar, (5) Deorukh, (6) Kankavli, (7) Ratnagiri, (8) Rajapur, (9) Malvan, (10) Vengurla, (11) Deogad, and (12) Sawantwadi.

The total strength of home guard was 357 in 1958.

A separate unit of women home guards is functioning at Ratnagiri and its present strength is 36. Of these 12 have been trained in the use of fire-arms and other weapons.

Village Defence Parties.

With a view to providing an opportunity to villagers to cultivate among themselves and also towards their villages a sense of civic duty, an organisation known as "village defence party" has been formed. These parties are very useful for the defence of villages against depredations of dacoits and other types of criminals. It is a body of public spirited and able-bodied villagers between the ages of 20 and 50 who voluntarily enroll themselves as members of the party.

CHAPTER 14.
—
Justice and Peace.
POLICE.
Village Defence Parties.

For each district there is a police officer of the rank of Sub-Inspector for the supervision of the village defence parties in the district and is designated as the village defence officer. He is assisted by a joint village defence officer, who is a citizen willing to work in an honorary capacity under the village defence officer. There is one assistant village defence officer of the rank of a head constable and one joint assistant village defence officer selected from the public for each taluka. Under these taluka officers there is a *kotwal* for each village organisation. The *kotwal* is a villager appointed by the District Superintendent of Police on the recommendation of the assistant village defence officer. He is in charge of the village defence party, the men in the party being recommended by the *kotwal* and other officers in order to become eligible for joining it. Joint village defence officer and joint assistant village defence officer get permanent travelling allowance at a rate of Rs. 35 and Rs. 22·75 nPs. per month respectively.

The whole defence organisation in the district is subordinate to the District Superintendent of Police, who, in turn, is under the control of the District Magistrate.

In order to create confidence among the members of the village defence parties, a few selected villagers are given arms licences.

Members of the village defence parties are trained together at a given place with such weapons including sticks etc. as they possess, to defend themselves in the best manner they can, under the guidance and leadership of the village *kotwal*.

In order that there should be some men who can handle fire-arms in an emergency, the District Superintendent of Police arranges to train in musketry, a few men selected by the village defence officer from each village defence party.

The village defence parties are intended merely for self-defence and do not possess any of the powers of police officers. Every act performed by any member of the party must be such as can be justified by the principles of the right of private defence of person and property as laid down in the Indian Penal Code. No act, therefore, of a member of a village defence party which is not justified by that right is condoned merely because such person happens to be a member of a village defence party organised or working under the supervision of the police.

In Ratnagiri district upto the end of 1958, village defence parties were formed in 1,357 villages and the strength was of 26,451 members.

THE JAIL DEPARTMENT.

CHAPTER 14.

—

Justice and Peace.
JAILS
Location of Jails.

THERE IS ONE MAIN PRISON AT RATNAGIRI which has been declared as "special prison" to concentrate "bad hats" from other jails in the State so as to give them deterrent treatment. The jail is in charge of a Superintendent. Casual prisoners convicted and sentenced to more than three months, but not exceeding two years are sent to Sangli District Prison and prisoners sentenced to more than two years to Yeravda Central Prison. All habitual prisoners from the district are sent to Nasik Road Central Prison. Short term prisoners with sentences ranging from one week to a month are accommodated in taluka subsidiary jails located at Chiplun, Deogad, Deorukh, Dapoli, Guhagar, Khed, Kankavli, Kudal, Mandangad, Rajapur and Vengurla. These sub-jails are classified as III class sub-jails and are administered by the Revenue Department. The sub-jail at Sawantwadi is classified as II class head-quarter sub-jail, which is in charge of a jailor-*cum*-superintendent.

The lock-ups are staffed by the Police Department.

Organisation.

The Inspector-General of Prisons exercises general control and superintendence of all prisons and jails in the State. He is assisted by Deputy Inspector-General, Personal Assistant, Superintendent of Jail Industries and other office staff.

The executive officer in charge of a Central or a District Prison is the Superintendent who is vested with the executive management of the prison in all matters relating to internal economy, discipline, labour, punishment and control generally subject to the orders and authority of the Inspector-General.

Training.

The Superintendents of Prisons and Jails receive a theoretical as well as practical training in Jail Officers' Training School at Yeravda on a scientific basis in all fields of correctional work.

A physical training instructor visits the jails in the State in rotation and imparts training in drill, games and other physical activities both to the inmates of the jail and also to the jail guards.

Due care is taken to see that every jail officer and every jail subordinate gets an adequate opportunity to acquaint himself with the theoretical as well as practical sides of his duties so that he can discharge them quite satisfactorily. The training programme has in fact gained an important place in the jail administration which is aiming at giving a material shape to the idea — "imprisonment should primarily aim at treating a prisoner's diseased mind since the crime which he commits is but a sign of a diseased mind, and also making him fit to go into society after his release to lead an honest life".

Guarding Establishment.

Part of the guarding establishment is armed and this section serves as a reserve guard to reinforce the unarmed guards in the immediate charge of prisoners inside the prison or in extramural gangs in the event of assault, mutiny, escape or other emergency.

CHAPTER 14.

Justice and Peace.
JAILS
Matron.

No post of Matron is sanctioned for Ratnagiri special prison and Sawantwadi sub-jail but the Superintendent is empowered to engage a matron locally whenever a woman prisoner is admitted to the jail.

Medical Officer.

No Medical staff is sanctioned for headquarter sub-jail at Sawantwadi but the Maharashtra Medical Service Officer in charge of the local Government dispensary or the Medical Officer attached to the Local Board or Municipal Dispensary stationed at or nearest to the place where the sub-jail is situated is deemed to be the Medical Officer of the Jail.

Classification of Prisoners.

Prisoners are classified as Class I or Class II by the Court after taking into consideration their status in society and also the nature of the offence. They are further classified as casuals, habituals, undertrials, and security or detenus. There is no separate class of "political prisoners". Prisoners are also grouped as "short termers", i.e. having a sentence upto three months, "medium termers", i.e. sentenced to three months and above upto two years, and "long termers", i.e. sentenced to two years and above. The short termers are given deterrent treatment while in the case of medium and long termers paramount importance is given to the reformation of the prisoner. Headquarter sub-jails are meant for the confinement of short term prisoners and under trial prisoners only.

Jail Reforms Committee.

The Jail Reforms Committee appointed by the State Government in 1946 in their report made several recommendations calculated to conduce to the reformation of the prisoner and Government accepted many of those recommendations. The rules for the treatment have since been liberalised. The regulations regarding corporal punishment have been tightened and whipping as a jail punishment is now to be awarded exceptionally after obtaining prior sanction of Government. Punishments of penal diet and gunny clothing have been abolished. Rules about letters and interviews have also been liberalized.

Canteen.

Jail canteens have been opened in main jails. Profits accruing from canteens are utilized for purchase of articles like radios, books, and such other articles as to promote the welfare of prisoners.

Remission of sentence.

Only long-termers come within the ambit of the rules on the subject. Prisoners confined in the main prison are granted liberal remissions which are classified as—Ordinary Remission; Annual Good Conduct Remission; Special Remission; Blood Donation Remission; Remission for Conservancy Work; and Remission for Physical Training.

In addition, State remission is awarded by Government on occasions of public rejoicing. It is granted unconditionally and cannot be forfeited under any circumstances.

Work.

Work is arranged according to the prisoner's health. Prisoners are engaged during the period of their imprisonment at Ratnagiri Special Prison on the following jobs—handloom, pitloom weaving, *punja* carpet weaving, laundry work, *bidi* making, carpentry, and gardening.

A prisoner may be released on parole in cases of serious illness or death of any member of his family or his nearest relative or for any other sufficient cause. The period spent on parole will not count as part of the sentence.

CHAPTER 14.

Justice and Peace.
JAILS
Release on parole and furlough.

The prisoner who desires to be released on parole has to submit his application to the Jail Superintendent who has to endorse his remarks thereon and submit one copy thereof direct to Government and one copy to the Inspector-General of Prisons along with the nominal roll of the prisoner concerned. Prisoners who apply for parole on false grounds or who abuse the concession or commit breaches of any of the conditions of parole are liable to be punished. Enquiries as regards genuineness or otherwise of the grounds advanced in the application are made through the local Revenue and Police Officers.

Prisoners with a sentence of one year and above are entitled for being released on furlough for a period of two weeks which will be counted as a part of sentence.

Board of Visitors.

A Board of Visitors composing official and non-official visitors is appointed for every headquarter sub-jail and taluka sub-jails. There are ordinarily four non-official visitors for head-quarter sub-jail of which two are the members of the Maharashtra Legislature and two are nominated by Government of whom one is a lady. The appointment of non-official visitors other than members of the Maharashtra Legislature is made for a period not exceeding three years. Persons who in the opinion of Government are interested in the prison administration and are likely to take interest in the welfare of prisoners both while they are in prison and after their release are nominated by Government on the Board of visitors on the recommendation of the District Magistrate concerned and the Inspector-General of Prisons. The Chairman of the Board of visitors who is usually the District Magistrate arranges for a weekly visit to the prison by one of the members of the Board. Quarterly meetings of the whole Board are convened. Non-official visitors are also allowed to visit prison on any day at any time during the day in addition to the weekly visit arranged by the Chairman. The Board records in the Visitor's Book its observations on the result of the detailed inspection of the Jails. Any remark at the quarterly meeting or at the weekly visits deserving special and prompt disposal is immediately forwarded by the Superintendent to the Inspector-General for necessary orders. Other remarks made by the visitors and the quarterly committee of visitors are forwarded immediately after the end of the month by the Superintendent to the Inspector-General with such remarks as he may desire to offer.

Jail Panchayat.

In bigger jails a committee of prisoners is selected for each yard by the prisoners themselves, and the Jailor and the Superintendent consult the committee which is known in jail parlance as "Jail Panchayat Committee" in matters of discipline and general welfare of prisoners.

CHAPTER 14.
—
Justice and Peace.
JAILS
Education.

Literacy classes are conducted for those prisoners who are ignorant of the three Rs. under the supervision of literate convicts and paid teachers are appointed only at some of the main jails in the State. Films of educational and reformative values are also exhibited by the District Regional Publicity Officer concerned.

Sanitation and Hygiene.

Utmost precautions are taken in treating the prisoners suffering from various diseases and jail hospitals are equipped with all possible requirements. Special types of diseases are attended to with due care. All possible measures are taken against the spread of epidemics and contagious diseases.

Accommodation.

The authorised accommodation and daily average population of Ratnagiri Special Prison and Sawantwadi Sub-Jail for the year 1957 was as under :—

Name of the Jail.	Sanctioned accommodation.			Daily average number for the year 1957.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Ratnagiri Special Prison.	263	24	287	150	1	151
Sawantwadi Sub-Jail.	73	4	77	43	3	46

SOCIAL WELFARE DEPARTMENT (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).

SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).
Legislation.

IN MAHARASHTRA STATE THERE ARE FIVE PIECES OF SOCIAL LEGISLATION the aim of three of which is to protect children and to prevent juveniles, adolescents and young adults from becoming habitual criminals. They are (1) the Bombay Children Act, 1948, (2) the Bombay Borstal Schools Act, 1929, and (3) the Bombay Probation of Offenders Act, 1938. The remaining two are the Bombay Beggars Act, 1945, for prevention of begging and the Bombay Habitual Offenders' Restriction Act, 1947, dealing with prevention of crime and treatment of offenders. While the Children Act deals with children below 16 years of age, the Borstal Schools Act is applied to adolescents between 16 and 21, and the Probation of Offenders Act provides for offenders of any age, especially those between 21 and 25 and those who have not committed offences punishable with death or transportation for life.

There are also the following two Children Acts prevalent in the respective Divisions :—

Children Act.	Division or Area.
(1) The Hyderabad Children Act, 1951 ..	Marathawada.
(2) The C. P. and Berar Children Act, 1928.	Vidarbha.

CHAPTER 14.

Justice and Peace.
SOCIAL WELFARE.
Children Act.

The Bombay Children Act consolidates all previous laws relating to the custody, protection, treatment and rehabilitation of children and youthful offenders and also relating to the trial of youthful offenders. It gives protection to four principal classes of children, viz., (1) those who are neglected, destitute or living in immoral surroundings, and those in moral danger ; (2) uncontrollable children who have been reported as such by their parents , (3) children, especially girls who have been used for begging and other purposes by mercenary persons ; and (4) young delinquents who either in the company or at the instigation of older persons or by themselves have committed offences under the various laws of the land. Such children are taken charge of either by the police or by officers known as "Probation Officers" and in most cases are kept in "Remand Homes". A Remand Home is primarily meant as a place where a child can be safely accommodated during the period its case is being considered and it is also meant to be a centre where a child's character and behaviour can be minutely observed and its needs fully provided for by wise and careful consideration. After enquiries regarding their home conditions and antecedents have been completed, they are placed before special Courts known as "Juvenile Courts" and dealt with according to the provisions of the Children Act. If the home conditions are found to be satisfactory, and if what is needed is only friendly guidance and supervision, then the children are restored to their parents and placed under the supervision of a trained Probation Officer. If the home conditions are unwholesome and uncongenial, the children are committed to institutions known as "Certified Schools" or "fit person institutions". Fit person—includes any association established for the reception or protection of children. At these schools or institutions the children receive training according to their individual aptitudes, in carpentry, smithy, book-binding, tailoring, agriculture, poultry-farming, goat-rearing, gardening, cane-work, knitting, etc. Youthful offenders, when implicated in any offence along with adult offenders, have to be tried separately in Juvenile Courts without the paraphernalia of Criminal Courts. The technique employed in Juvenile Courts is entirely different from that in adult Courts. Juvenile Courts are held in Remand Homes. Penal terms are avoided, and even the word "punishment" has been dropped from the enactment in describing the treatment to be meted out. The children are regarded only as victims of circumstances or of the wrong treatment received from adults.

Borstal Schools Act.

Adolescent criminals coming under the Borstal Schools Act are sent for detention and training in the Borstal School, Dharwar. Factory work and agriculture form two main heads of vocational training. Weaving, manufacture of furniture and stationery, and smithy are some of the other vocations taught. The adolescents sent to this school are given such individual training and other instruction and are subjected to such disciplinary and moral influences as will conduce to their reformation. However, boys found to be too incorrigible or unsociable to be kept in the Borstal School are

CHAPTER 14. — Justice and Peace. SOCIAL WELFARE.

transferred to the Juvenile Section of the Yeravda Prison. Similarly, if the Inspector-General of Prisons thinks that any prisoner in the Juvenile Section can be better treated to his advantage if he is sent to the Borstal School, he is transferred accordingly. Both Juveniles and adolescents, when they have finished a certain period of residence in the institutions to which they are sent and have acquired some proficiency in a trade, are released, under a license as prescribed under the Rules, to live in their homes, or, if they are destitutes, in "aftercare hostels" (institutions run by non-official agencies), under supervision, and efforts are made to find employment for them. There is no Borstal School in the Maharashtra State; hence the Borstal School, Dharwar, is made use of.

Machinery to enforce Legislation. *Non-official.*

For the proper enforcement of the legislative enactments mentioned above, machinery, both official and non-official, is provided. The non-official machinery is provided by the Maharashtra State Probation and After-Care Association, Poona, with a net-work of affiliated bodies called the District Probation and After-Care Associations. These Associations provide "Remand Homes" and "After Care Hostels" and also direct Probation Officers to make enquiries regarding the home conditions and antecedents of children and also to supervise the young persons released either directly by courts or on licence from Certified Schools and the Borstal School, Dharwar.

Official.

The official agency is the Directorate of Social Welfare (Correctional and non-Correctional Administration Wings), Poona. The work under the Juvenile Branch was transferred from Education Department to the Education and Social Welfare Department from the 1st December, 1956. Later on, from the 1st November, 1957, the work under the former Juvenile and Beggars department and the work under the Backward Class Welfare department have been combined and a new Directorate of Social Welfare has been established. The Directorate works under the Education and Social Welfare department. There are now three Wings of the Directorate of Social Welfare under the Director of Social Welfare and they are as follows :—

(1) *Backward Class Wing.*—for all Backward Class welfare activities.

(2) *Correctional Administration Wing.*—Children Act work (Juvenile Branch and State Association Branch), Beggars Act work, Habitual Offenders Restriction work, Bombay Probation of Offenders Act work.

(3) *Non-Correctional Administration Wing.*—(1) Moral and social hygiene programme and other plan schemes including report and research.

(2) Branch for the Physically Handicapped.

The Backward Class Wing is headed by the Joint Director of Social Welfare. The Correctional Wing is headed by the Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Administration), who is also ex-officio Chief Inspector of Certified Schools, Cheif Inspector of Certified Institutions and Reclamation Officer for the respective

legislations, viz. (1) Bombay Children Act, (2) Bombay Beggars Act, and (3) Habitual Offenders Restriction Act. Excepting the administration of Borstal Schools and institutions which are controlled by the Home Department at the Secretariat level, all work of the Correctional Administration Wing and Non-Correctional Administration Wing is controlled by the Education and Social Welfare department through the Director of Social Welfare.

Bombay Children Act, 1948.—Part VII of the Act relating to youthful offenders has been made applicable to the Ratnagiri district. The Judicial Magistrates, First Class, can try the cases of young offenders coming under the purview of the Act. As regards Parts V and VI of the Act relating to destitute, neglected, uncontrollable, illegitimate and victimised children they have not yet been made applicable to the district due to non-availability of the requisite machinery such as remand homes, juvenile courts and certified schools, During the year 1957-58, cases relating to 142 boys and 32 girls were tried by the First Class Judicial Magistrates.

The Bombay Borstal Schools Act.—Only supervision work of the lads released from the Borstal School, Dharwar is entrusted to the Maharashtra State Probation and After-Care Association to which the grants are paid by Government through the Director of Social Welfare. As regards the implementation of the Act, running of Borstal Schools, etc. the Inspector-General of Prisons, Maharashtra State, Poona, is the responsible authority. Two licensees released on licence from the Borstal School, Dharwar, were supervised during the year 1957-58 in the district.

The Bombay Probation of Offenders Act, 1938.—The provisions of the Act have not yet (1959) been made applicable to the Ratnagiri district.

The Bombay Beggars Act, 1945.—The provisions of this Act also have not yet (1959) been applied to Ratnagiri district.

The Bombay Habitual Offenders Registration Act, 1947.—The benefits of this Act are available to the district whenever necessary. A habitual offender of this district can be interned in a settlement or his movements restricted as the case may be. The department deals with internment cases.

Institutions Under Moral and Social Hygiene Programme.—There is one Reception Centre in Sawantwadi, established by Government. It is concerned with preventive and rescue work among women and adolescent girls and deals with cases of victimisation and exploitation of women and girls released from institutions including rescue homes and correctional institutions. This Reception Centre has been declared as "Protective Home" under the Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956. The maximum accommodation of the Centre is 25. The Reception Centre was established in January, 1959 and since then 22 females have been admitted till 30th June 1959. On 1st July 1959 there were 11 inmates in the Centre.

CHAPTER 15—REVENUE AND FINANCE.

CHAPTER 15.

Revenue and Finance.

THE DEPARTMENT OF LAND RECORDS.

LAND RECORDS. Introduction.

THE LAND REVENUE SYSTEM PREVALENT IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT is *rayatwari* and it is based upon a complete survey, soil classification and settlement of the assessment of every field.

The original survey settlements were introduced in the district between 1866 and 1893 and the first revision settlements between 1898 and 1926. The second revision settlement was introduced in three talukas only, viz., (i) Ratnagiri in 1915-16, (ii) Mandangad in 1925-26, and (iii) Khed in 1925-26. In the merged areas, the original survey settlement was introduced between 1876 and 1885 and the first revision settlement in 1921-25.

The whole of the district has been surveyed, classified and settled.

The current settlements have long expired in all talukas of the district. The original and revision settlement work was taken up but the operations were discontinued under Government orders.

Survey.

The unit of area is the "English Acre", with its sub-division, the *guntha* (121 square yards), i.e., the square formed by 1 chain or 11 yards), 40 *gunthas* making an acre. The area of each survey number is separately entered in the Land Records under indicative number and that of a sub-division, too, is so entered under the indicative number subordinate to that of the survey of which it forms a part. The survey of unsurveyed villages which is done recently is, however, done by plane table method.

Maps.

Accurate village maps have been prepared (generally on a scale of 1" = 20 chains) for all surveyed villages showing the survey numbers and their boundary marks, and other topographical details such as roads, nallas, and forests. From these village maps, taluka and district maps were prepared on a scale of 1" = 2 miles.

Classification.

The main classes of lands recognized were *varkas*, *rabi*, *khariff*, *agri*, *bagayat* and *dongri bagayat* and each field was classified with reference to the texture of the soil, its depth and deteriorating factors and extra advantages, if any. In case of garden lands, in addition to the soil factor, tree factor was also taken into consideration during classification. The classification value was expressed in

CHAPTER 15.
—
Revenue and Finance.
LAND RECORDS.
Settlement and Assessment.

terms of annas, 16 annas representing the standard. The soil classification as originally confirmed being declared final, no general reclassification of soil is made again at further revision settlements. The holder is, however, entitled to reclassification of his lands on account of physical deterioration and reduction of assessment. All improvements made are exempt from taxation for a period of thirty years immediately preceding the year in which settlement is introduced. Thereafter they are liable to taxation.

Prior to 1939, the settlement procedure was prescribed by administrative orders of Government under the Land Revenue Code. The settlement procedure was first brought on statute book under the Amendment Act of 1939 (Bombay XX of 1939). Under the Land Revenue Code Amendment Act, XXVIII of 1956, certain changes have been made in the settlement procedure. The changes in brief involve a shift in emphasis from the general economic condition of the area and rental value to the prevalent prices and yields of principal crops. The various provisions governing the settlement procedure are contained in Chapter VIII-A of the Land Revenue Code and Chapter III-A of the Land Revenue Rules. The prescribed procedure is, in brief, as under :—

"Settlement" is defined as the result of operations conducted in a zone in order to determine the land revenue assessment.

Zone is defined as local area comprising a taluka or a group of talukas or portions thereof, of one or more districts which is contiguous and homogenous in respect of (1) physical configuration, (2) climate and rainfall, (3) principal crops grown in the area, and (4) soil characteristics.

The Settlement Officer examines fully the past revenue history of the zone with a view to assess the general effect of the incidence of assessment on the economic conditions of the zone. He then proceeds to divide the lands to be settled into groups and fix the standard rates for each class of lands in such groups.

The groups are formed with consideration to the following obligatory factors, viz. :—

(1) physical configuration, (2) climate and rainfall, (3) prices, and (4) yield of principal crops.

If the Settlement Officer thinks it necessary to do so, he may also take into account the factors specified in clauses (*a*), (1) of the proviso to the sub-section (2) of section 117 G. (Land Revenue Code), viz., (*a*) markets, (*b*) communications, (*c*) standard of husbandry, (*d*) population and supply of labour, (*e*) agricultural resources, (*f*) variation in the area of occupied and cultivated lands during the last 30 years, (*g*) wages, (*h*) ordinary expenses of cultivating principal crops, including the wages of the cultivator for his labour in cultivating the land, and (*i*) sales of lands used for agriculture.

"Standard" rate is defined with reference to any particular class of land in a group as the value of one sixteenth of the average yield

of crops per acre on land in that class of sixteen annas classification value.

Improvements made at the cost of the holders are exempted from the enhancement of assessment for a period of 30 years, immediately preceding the date on which the settlement expires.

The Settlement Officer is required to formulate his principles for settlement on the above basis and submit a comprehensive report, to the Collector concerned. The report would contain :—

(*i*) the various statistics and data collected by him in the prescribed form,

(*ii*) a statement showing the effect of his proposals as compared to that of the previous settlement in force.

The settlement report is published in the regional language in each village in the prescribed manner, together with a notice stating the existing standard rates for each class of land and the extent of increase or decrease proposed by the Settlement Officer. A period of three months from the date of notice is allowed for any objection to the settlement proposals.

Provision is made for referring settlement proposals to the Revenue Tribunal by the State Government at the instance of aggrieved persons (who have to deposit the prescribed amount of cost), within two months from the date of the notice.

After taking into account the objections, the Collector forwards the Settlement Officer's report to the State Government through the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, with his remarks.

The settlement report together with the objections and the recommendations of the Maharashtra Revenue Tribunal is required to be placed on the table of each chamber of the Legislature and the proposals can be discussed in the Legislature.

Thereupon the State Government passes final orders on the settlement report and, after a notice of the order has been given in the prescribed manner, the settlement is deemed to have been introduced.

The assessment to be imposed on each holding in the case of an original settlement is determined by the application of the standard rates to the classification value or the land through the medium of *Jantris* (table of calculation), prepared by the Superintendent of Land Records, and in the case of revision settlement it is worked out by increasing or decreasing the old assessment in the proportion as there is an increase or decrease in the new standard rates over the old ones (Land Revenue Rule 19-H).

CHAPTER 15. — Revenue and Finance. LAND RECORDS.

A settlement ordinarily remains in force for 30 years.

Government may after the expiry of every ten years from the date on which settlement was introduced enhance or reduce the assessment on lands in any zone by placing a surcharge or granting a rebate on the assessment by reference to the alterations of prices of the principal crops in such zone.

Additional water advantages accrued at the cost of Government can be assessed during the currency of the settlement.

LAND TENURE.

The District of Ratnagiri forms part of Konkan, with its peculiar physical configuration and the problems of agriculture and administration necessitating its own special land tenures. These tenures arose out of the need of reclamation of the waste and uncultivated lands populating the villages by bringing settlers from outside and collecting land revenue on behalf of Government. Besides the usual survey tenures (usually known as the *khalsa* tenure), there were prevailing in the district before the introduction of the various Land Revenue Abolition Acts, introduced after 1947, the *Khoti* tenure, the *Kauli* and *Katuban tenures* and the *Inam* tenures.

Khoti Tenure.

Khoti tenure.—The *khoti* tenure originated in the Konkan owing to the rugged nature of the tract and the difficulty of collecting land revenue. A powerful and influential middleman, who could settle himself in the village, organize cultivation of lands, command confidence of the *rayats* and be responsible to Government for revenue, was badly needed. This situation created a middleman called the *Khot*. In Ratnagiri district the *Khots* were given *sanads* and were treated as hereditary farmers of revenue with certain defined rights over their subordinate *rayats*. The *Khoti* tenure in the district was governed by the provisions of the Bombay *Khoti* Settlement Act of 1880, which was enacted on the basis of the recommendations of the *Khoti* Commission appointed in 1874 The Act merely defined the existing rights and did not confer any new rights which were not then in existence. The *Khoti* villages included some personal *Inam* villages and some *pargana-watan Khoti* villages also. The *Khot* held the village on payment to Government of the aggregate assessment of the village. His rights to the *Khoti* lands were heritable and transferable. He had also reversionary right in respect of the *Khoti Nisbat* lands forfeited, or lapsed for failure of heirs and resigned by permanent tenants and quasi-*dharekaris*. In the *Khoti Khasagi* lands, however, he had full rights. As in the Kolaba district also, the *Khoti Khasagi* land in the Ratnagiri district was the private property of the *Khot*. The *Khoti Nisbat* land in Ratnagiri was joint property of the *Khot*, unlike in Kolaba where it vested in Government.

In the case of the *Khoti Khasagi* lands, the *Khot* was recognised as an occupant, the *dharekari* or quasi-*Dharekari* in the case of the

Dhara land, permanent tenants in the case of lands held by them and in the case of the *Khoti Nisbat* lands, any tenant in possession of such lands and if there was no tenant, then the *Khot*. But a tenant other than a permanent tenant holding *Khoti Nisbat* land had to pay occupancy price equal to six times the assessment for acquisition of the occupancy right.

For abolition of the *Khoti Phayada* a Quasi-*dharekari*, a permanent tenant or a tenant of *Khoti Nisbat* land had to pay to the *Khot*, the commuted value of the *Khot's* dues at a rate not exceeding three times the value of such dues, if payable in cash, or three times the value of such dues, if payable in kind, subject to maximum of six times the survey assessment of the land. The occupancy price and commuted value of the *Khot's* dues were recoverable as arrears of land revenue. The *Khot* in Ratnagiri had certain forest rights also. He was entitled to 1/3 of the profits derived by Government from forest, after deducting the cost of management.

The *Khoti* Tenure in Ratnagiri, which was recognised by the *Khoti* Settlement Act of 1880, has since been abolished with all its incidence by the introduction (with effect from 15th May 1950) of the Bombay *Khoti* Abolition Act of 1949 (Bom. VI of 1950), which has repealed the said Act of 1880.

Kauli and Katuban Tenures.

Kauli and Katuban Tenures.—The *Kauli* and *Katuban* tenures were found in the former State of Sawantwadi now merged in Ratnagiri district. The expression "*Kaul*" ordinarily meant an agreement and implied a contract or lease of land granted on favourable terms for the reclamation of the land. It was, in essence, a reclamation lease under which land was allowed to be held free from payment of assessment for some years and then the assessment was levied on a graduated scale. The expression "*Katuban*" meant fixed rent or assessment not liable to fluctuation. Since 1880, the terms "*Kaul*" and "*Katuban*" came to be treated as synonymous. There were no entire villages of this tenure. They covered only scattered lands. The *Kauli* assessment was generally less than the survey assessment but in a few cases, the former exceeded the latter. A tree tax at varying rates was levied on these lands in the Ratnagiri district. All these leases were permanent or hereditary.

During the continuance of the tenures for more than a hundred years, the lands under the *Kauli* and *Katuban* tenures were developed and the reason for continuing the reduced assessment disappeared. Consequently these tenures have been resumed under the Bombay *Kauli* and *Katuban* Tenures Abolition Act, 1953 (Bom. XLIV of 1953). All such lands have since been subjected to payment of full assessment, all incidence of the tenures including the tree tax abolished and all the *Kaulidars* and permanent holders made occupants without charging any occupancy price and village records corrected.

CHAPTER 15.
—
Revenue and Finance.
LAND RECORDS.
Land Tenures.
Inam Tenures.

Inam Tenures.—The political inams governed by the Saranjam Rules of 1898 and recognised by the British as a matter of political expendiency in favour of certain historical families, without performance of service, have since been resumed with effect from 1st November 1952, under The Bombay Saranjams, Jahagirs and Inams of Political Nature Resumption Rules, 1952. In case of the soil grants the resumption under the rules was outright and if any encumbrances were created by the inamdars, they were extinguished. Only the inferior holders paying assessment anterior to the grants were recognised as occupants. In the case of Land Revenue Grants, the resumption was by levy of full assessment, the lands having been the private property of the holder. The Jahagirs of the former Sawantwadi State were abolished under the Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (Jahagirs Abolition Act, 1953), with effect from 1st August 1954.

Of service inams, those useful to community have, with the impact of mechanisation of transport and the consequent disruption of the age-old self-sufficiency of the village economy, since been abolished by the Bombay Service Inams (Useful to Community) (Gujarat and Konkan), Resumption Rules, 1954, with effect from 1st December 1954. These Resumption Rules have abolished inams consisting of: (*a*) grants of soil with or without exemption and (*b*) grants of revenue only. In the case of the former, the resumption was outright. Only an interior holder paying assessment to the inamdar has been recognised as occupant. Inams useful to Government have, however, been continued subject to the operations of (1) The Bombay Pargana and Kulkarni Watan Abolition Act, 1950 (Act LX of 1950), which abolished the Pargana Watans and (2) The Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (Jahagirs Abolition Act, 1953), which abolished all Jagirs consisting of entire alienated villages and portions of villages and (3) The Bombay Merged Territories, Miscellaneous Alienations Abolition Act, 1955, which was enforced with effect from 1st August 1955, and applied to the merged territories only and to scattered lands, assignments of land revenue and cash allowances.

Devasthan inam or *inams* held for religious purposes or by charitable institutions still continue. Personal inams, have however, been abolished by the introduction of the Bombay Personal Inams Abolition Act, 1952 (Bom. XLIV of 1953).

To sum up, as a result of the various Land Tenure Abolition Acts, only the following broad tenures, besides the General Survey Tenure (*Khalsa*) still prevail in Ratnagiri district :—

(1) Service inams useful to Government which are very few in number, and

(2) Devasthan inams.

LAND RECORDS.
Land Tenures.

The ordinary survey tenure may be described as the right of occupancy of Government land continuable in perpetuity on payment of the Government demand and transferable by inheritance, sale, gift or mortgage without other restrictions than the requirement to give notice to the authority. This is the tenure as defined in the original Bombay Land Revenue Code, Act V of 1579. There is, however, another variety created under the amending Act VI of 1901 by the insertion of Section 73-A in the Code of 1879. Under this Act, the Collector is authorised to grant the occupancy of lands for limited periods or on such conditions as he may think necessary, the principle being that the occupant cannot alienate his land without the previous permission of the Collector. This tenure is known as "New" or "Impartible" or "Restricted" Tenure. It affects only the unalienated lands and is introduced with the object of restricting injudicious transfers in backward areas and safeguarding the lands in these areas against falling into the hands of *Sawakars*.

Record of Rights.

The record of rights law (contained in Chapter X of the Land Revenue Code), was enacted in 1913. The record of rights has been introduced in all the pre-merger talukas. The survey for record of rights purposes has been undertaken in the merged State areas and the record of rights is being introduced in all these villages. According to Section 135-B (*1*) of the Land Revenue Code, the record of rights contains the following particulars: (*a*) the names of all persons who are holders, occupants, owners, or mortgagees of the land or assignees of the rent or revenue thereof; (*b*) the nature and extent of the respective interests of such persons and the conditions or liabilities attached thereto: (*c*) the rent or revenue (if any), payable by or to any of such persons; and (*d*) such other particulars as the State Government may prescribe under the Rules made in this behalf.

The State Government has now applied the law to all tenancies under Section 135-B (2). Any acquisition of a right in land is to be reported to the village officers by the persons acquiring it, unless it is registered (Land Revenue Code, Section 135-C). Failure to carry out this obligation, is liable to fine by way of late fees.

Functions of the Department.

The Land Records Department was created in 1884, when the revision survey and settlement operations were under completion and the old Survey Settlement Department was brought to a close. The Department is now an adjunct to the Revenue Department. Its functions are: (i) to maintain all survey, classification and settlement records up-to-date by keeping careful notes of all changes, and for this purpose to carry out field operations preliminary to incorporation of the changes in the survey records; (ii) to collect and provide statistics necessary for the sound administration of all matters connected with land; (iii) to help to reduce, simplify and cheapen

CHAPTER 15.

Revenue and Finance.

LAND RECORDS.

Functions of the Department.

litigation in revenue and civil courts by providing reliable survey and other records; (iv) to supervise the preparation and maintenance of record of rights and of the periodical inspection of boundary marks; (v) to conduct periodical revision settlement operations; (vi) to organise and carry out village site and city surveys on an extensive scale and arrange for their proper maintenance; (vii) to undertake special surveys for private individuals or for public bodies, survey in connection with railway, municipal, and local board projects, town planning schemes and survey for the Defence and other Government Departments; (viii) to maintain all village maps up-to-date and to reprint them and arrange for their distribution to various departments for administrative purposes and for sale to the public; and (ix) to train the Revenue Officers in survey and settlement matters.

Land Records Staff.

The District Inspector of Land Records, Ratnagiri, is the principal officer in-charge of the Land Records Department in the district. He is a Gazetted Officer (of Mamlatdar's rank), appointed by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records and is directly subordinate to the Superintendent, Land Records, Nasik Circle, Nasik, in all technical matters. He is also a subordinate to the Collector of Ratnagiri and has to carry out all administrative orders of the Collector in the matter of survey and land records and has an adequate staff.

Duties and Functions of the District Inspector of Land Records, and his staff.

The duties of the District Inspector of Land Records, are :—

(*a*) to supervise, and to take a field test of the measurement, classification and *pot hissa* work done by the district, cadastral and maintenance surveyors;

(*b*) to exercise check over the proper and prompt disposal of all measurement and other work done by the surveyor staff and the District Survey Office establishment by scrutinising their diaries and monthly statements;

(*c*) to take a small test of the work of as many circle inspectors and village officers as possible with a view to seeing that they understand their duties in respect of (i) the record of rights, (ii) the tenancy and crop registers, and (iii) the boundary marks, repair works, etc. During his village inspections, the District Inspector sees that the Government waste lands are not being unauthorisedly used. (His test is meant to be qualitative and not merely quantitative);

(*d*) to be responsible for the maintenance of the Theodolite stones in the villages surveyed on minor triangulation method and to arrange for their inspection and replacement where necessary;

(*e*) to compile the *huzur* statistics (Agricultural Forms Nos. I, II and III), with the clerical aid placed at his disposal by the Collector;

(*f*) to maintain the accounts and watch the recovery of the City Survey and *pot hissa* dues;

CHAPTER 15.

Revenue and Finance.

LAND RECORDS.

Functions of the Department.

(*g*) to inspect the City Survey Offices every year, and to send the inspection memoranda (in triplicate) to the Superintendent of Land Records, who forwards one copy to the Director of Land Records and one to the City Survey Officer, through the Collector, with his own remarks thereon;

(*h*) to arrange, in consultation with the Collector concerned, for the training of the Junior Indian Administrative Service Officers, the District Deputy Collectors, the candidates for the posts of Mamlatdars and Circle Inspectors, Clerks and Talathis, in survey and settlement matters; and

(*i*) to advise the Revenue Officers in the district in all technical matters concerned with the maintenance of the survey records and the record of rights, and to refer all cases of doubt to the Superintendent of Land Records.

District and Cadastral Surveyors.

The staff of District and Cadastral Surveyors deals with the routine measurement and classification work, whether done for Government (e.g., in land acquisition cases, etc.), or on private application. In the case of private work, the prescribed measurement fees are recovered from the parties in advance. The District Surveyor deals with such measurement cases as cannot ordinarily be entrusted to the Cadastral Surveyors on account of their difficulty, size, importance and urgency. The staff does the work of effecting necessary changes in the survey records preparing *kami-jasti patraks* during the monsoon. The partition cases are dealt with by the *Watap* Circle Inspectors.

District Survey Office and the Headquarter Assistant.

The District Survey Office is in charge of the Headquarter Assistant, who acts under the orders of the District Inspector of Land Records. The Headquarter Assistant and his staff are responsible for keeping the survey records up-to-date and in proper order. He deals with all correspondence connected with records (under the signature of the District Inspector of Land Records). In urgent circumstances, the Headquarter Assistant disposes of the reference under his own signature in the absence of the District Inspector of Land Records, informing the latter of the action taken by him. He recovers and accounts for the fees received for private measurement work, according to the prescribed procedure. He also issues certified extracts from the survey records and supplies printed maps to the applicants on payment of prescribed charges. The District Survey Office also issues the measurement cases to the surveyors for measurement and keeps a watch over their prompt and proper disposal, scrutinises the surveyor's work in the office and takes action to get all changes effected in the survey records. In this connection necessary *Kami-Jasti patraks* (with their abstracts) signed by the District Inspector of Land Records, and countersigned by the Superintendent, Land Records, and *akarphod patraks* signed by the District Inspector of Land Records are sent to the Revenue authorities for the correction of the village and taluka accounts, records and maps.

CHAPTER 15. — Revenue and Finance. LAND RECORDS. Maintenance Surveyor.

The Maintenance Surveyor is responsible for the maintenance of the City Surveys (these are introduced under section 131, Land Revenue Records Code), and the records including the record of rights and maps connected therewith and assists the revenue administration of the city surveyed area. He, therefore, works under the immediate control of the Revenue Officer in-charge of the city survey, but the technical and administrative control of the staff lies with the District Inspector of Land Records and the Superintendent of Land Records. There is only one city surveyed town, viz., Malvan. The city survey was introduced in the year 1935. The measurement work of Sawantwadi city survey has been completed and enquiry work is in progress as also the measurement work of city survey area of Ratnagiri town (1960). The cost of maintenance of city surveys is, as usual, borne by Government.

Pot Hissa Surveyors.

The staff of *pot hissa* surveyors (now under the control of the Survey Mamlatdar), does the measurement work of the sub-divisions of survey numbers for keeping the record of rights up-to-date. During the monsoons the staff does the office work of working out *hissawar* assessment and preparation of duplicate sketches and *akarphod* statements for the use of the village officers. (The cost of the sub-division measurement is recovered from the land holders under Section 135-C (*b*) Land Revenue Code).

Circle Inspectors.

The staff of the Circle Inspectors is primarily meant to assist the Revenue Officers in the up-to-date maintenance of the village records and land records kept at the village and assist the revenue administration and is, therefore, under the control of the Collector. They supervise the work of the village officers and their technical work of maintenance of the land records at the village is supervised by the District Inspector of Land Records and, therefore, their diaries pass through the District Inspector of Land Records.

Post-War Reconstruction Schemes.

Post-War Reconstruction Schemes.—In addition to the normal duties of the Department referred to in the foregoing paragraphs, the Land Records Department is entrusted with the execution of the following Post-War Reconstruction Schemes in the district :—

Scheme No.	Description.
74 ..	.. Consolidation of holdings under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.
61 ..	.. Survey and Settlement of unsurveyed merged-State villages.

Scheme No. 74—Consolidation of Holdings.—The Assistant Consolidation Officer and Additional Assistant Consolidation Officer, Ratnagiri, are the District Officers entrusted with the preparation

and execution of the schemes of consolidation of holdings. They are Gazetted Officers of the cadre of the District Inspector of Land Records, appointed by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, and working under the control of the Consolidation Officer, Kolhapur. Their subordinate staff comprises of :—

(*a*) Six surveyors under one *Nimtandar* each, to assist them in the up-to-date measurement of sub-divisions and bringing the records of rights up-to-date and preparation of the schemes of consolidation ; and

(*b*) a staff of Circle Inspector to assist in the execution of the schemes of the consolidation of holdings after confirmation by the Settlement Commissioner or Government, as the case may be.

Since 1950 28 villages in Lanje Mahal and 50 villages in Khed Taluka have been taken up for introducing the consolidation scheme ; work in 25 villages has so far been completed out of which in 14 villages, the scheme is completely enforced. In 15 villages the scheme is in progress. The work is carried out at present at Government cost.

Scheme No. 61 : Survey and classification for settlement purposes in merged State area.—The special staff sanctioned by Government for this scheme has carried out the survey and classifications in six villages and only survey operations in three other villages. In the remaining 10 villages the work is in progress. Only the cost of survey is recoverable from the holders. The rest of the cost is borne by Government.

Scheme for introduction of Record of Rights.—The survey for the purpose of introduction of record of rights in Sawantwadi taluka and Kudal and Kankavli petas is undertaken by the department. A special staff of 200 surveyors under the supervision of the two Survey Mamlatdars under the direct control of the Special Superintendent of Land Records, (*Pot Hissa Survey*), Poona, is working in this district and 101, 79 and 12 villages from Sawantwadi taluka and Kudal and Kankavli petas, respectively, are undertaken for measurement. The work in Kudal Peta and Sawantwadi Taluka is completed.

SALES TAX DEPARTMENT.

SALES TAX.

SALES TAX IS AN INDIRECT TAX. Being an indirect tax, the burden is not much felt by the tax payer and thus the State Government is in a position to collect large sums causing less dissatisfaction among the tax payers.

It has become a very important source of revenue. It occupies a very significant place in the State's Budget. Its importance can be gauged from the extent of amount that is being collected through

CHAPTER 15.

Revenue and Finance.

SALES TAX.

this source. It has more than compensated the loss of revenue by the introduction of prohibition.

Being an elastic source of revenue, it helps to collect more revenue by levy of tax at different stages of sales and at different rates on different commodities. The rate of tax is proportionately more on articles which are not daily necessities of life and therefore it can be said that indirectly more tax is levied on rich classes. It thus helps to bridge the gap between the income of the poor and that of the rich.

The Sales Tax Act was introduced for the first time in the then State of Bombay, from 1st October 1946. It was levied under that Act only at the last stage of sale and was, therefore, known as a single point tax. This system lasted till 31st October 1952. Under this system any reseller whose turnover of sales exceeded Rs. 30,000 or any processor or importer whose turnover exceeded Rs. 10,000 was made liable to pay the tax. The rate of tax was 0-0-6 per rupee on some selected goods which were normally consumed by persons belonging to higher income groups.

There was a provision for voluntary registration under the Act for some time. Tax on the goods despatched outside the then Bombay State was levied at a reduced rate.

From 1st November 1952, a new Act was put in force and it came to be known as Multi-point Tax Act. Unlike the single point tax, tax under this Act was levied at every stage of sale excepting stages exempted under the provisions of the Act and the Rules thereunder. This method of tax helped to raise more revenue and also to check evasion to some extent.

The rate of tax under this system was 0-0-3 per rupee except on articles scheduled as tax free and as special goods. The rate of tax varied from 1 per cent. to one anna in a rupee, on special goods.

The limit for registration under the Act was Rs. 30,000 without any distinction between a reseller and importer or processor. However, a limit of Rs. 5,000 was prescribed for the dealers dealing in special goods This Act remained in force up to 31st March 1954.

Current Sales Tax Act.

From 1st April 1954, a new Act was brought into force and the same continues till to-day. The system of levy of tax under this Act is known as Two Point Tax system. The tax is levied at every stage except when sale is to a dealer holding a licence and/or authorization. It thus has the element of multi-point taxation. This has helped to raise more revenue.

Under this Act, the tax is levied at the first point on the first sales or on the first purchase and at second point on subsequent sale of the same article, except when sold to a licensed dealer. There are

CHAPTER 15.

Revenue and Finance.

SALES TAX.

Current Sales Tax Act.

three classes of tax, viz., (1) Sales Tax, (2) Purchase Tax and (3) General Sales Tax. Unlike under the system of single point and multi-point tax there is a provision to levy purchase tax under this two-point tax. This has helped to check evasion to a great extent. The Purchase Tax is, however, not a separate tax and is only intended to seal off a loophole for evasion of either of the taxes. In effect, therefore, there is only a two-point tax system, viz., a tax generally levied at the first stage of sale (sales tax) and the tax levied generally at the last stage of sale (general sales tax).

The limit of registration under this new Act is Rs. 25,000 for re-sellers and Rs. 10,000 for processors, manufacturers and importers, etc. (i.e., who obtain goods from places outside the State of Maharashtra).

The rate of tax on different commodities is levied at different rates ranging from 1/4 % to 7 %, in addition to general sales tax.

Great care is taken to see that at any point of sale, the tax is not collected at more than two points as provided in the Act. To ensure this, there is provision to allow set-off under rule 11 (1) to manufacturers and processors and under rule 11 (2) to resellers. This is a salient feature of this Act. This set-off is allowed to the extent of taxes paid on the purchases of goods such as raw materials, lubricants, subsidiary materials, fuel, machinery and allied goods. These provisions have ensured that the tax as far as possible, would not be recovered more than what is intended in the law.

Licences and Authorisations.

Another distinguishing feature of this Act is of granting licences and authorisations to dealers whose turnover of sales either to registered dealers or to dealers of other States exceeds Rs. 50,000. A dealer holding both these certificates can buy goods without payment of any of the taxes and can send goods outside the State or out of India. This has helped to encourage inter-State sales and export of goods. This has also helped dealers of Maharashtra State to compete successfully with the traders of other States where the rate of tax is less as compared to the rate of tax in Maharashtra.

The dealers who hold licences only and do not hold authorisations can effect purchases free of general sales tax which is levied at second stage. This helps big dealers to buy goods without locking up their capital in payment of general sales tax at the time of purchases. This provision has thus removed difficulty in the way of wholesale trade.

The rate of tax applicable to different commodities is given in Schedule "B" of the Act. Schedule "A" gives the list of commodities on which there is no tax.

CHAPTER 15. — Revenue and Finance. SALES TAX.

Under the present Act, dealers have to send quarterly returns. In these returns, they are expected to give details of their sales as well as of purchases. This helps to compare their sales with purchases at the time of assessment.

Licences and Authorizations.

Till 31st December 1956, dealers were required to file returns as per financial year. But thereafter they are allowed, if they so choose, to file quarterly returns as per their accounting year. This has given a great relief to the business community as otherwise they had to take out details per quarter financial year which involved a lot of troubles. This also will go a long way to expedite the assessments.

With the introduction of the Central Sales Tax, 1956, it became necessary to provide for the taxation of goods re-sold within the various areas of the State by dealers who were registered under the Central Sales Tax Act, but not under the local sales tax laws. Such an amendment was made in the enactments applicable to the five regions. Simultaneously with the introduction of decimal coinage, the enactments were suitably amended.

On 13th December 1957, textiles, sugar and tobacco and its products ceased to be liable to sales tax by virtue of the Bombay Sales Tax Laws (Special Exemptions) Act, 1957 and became subject only to the levy of additional excise duty imposed under the central enactment called the Additional Duties (Goods of Special Importance) Act, 1957. This exemption did not, however, affect stocks of these commodities which were held in the then Bombay State on the midnight of 12th December 1957 and, therefore, the Special Exemptions Act, provided for the continuance of the levy of Sales Tax in respect of such stocks alone, for a further period which actually expired on 30th June 1958.

Goods not taxed.

No tax is levied on goods specified in Schedule (A) containing 42 entries. These entries categorically contain the following classes of goods :—

(i) Goods required mostly by agriculturists for cultivation, e.g., agricultural implements worked or operated exclusively by human or animal agency of the following kinds: chaff-cutters, clod-crushers, harrows, iron and leather *mhots*, iron ploughs and plough points, pick-axes, *rahats*, shovels, sickles, spades and wooden seed drills (entry 1); cattle, sheep and goats (5): cattle-feeds including fodder and other concentrates but excluding cotton seed (6); fertilizers (17); and manures including oil cakes (32);

(ii) Necessaries of the poorer sections of the community, e.g., betel leaves (2); bread (3); butter-milk and curds (4); cereals and pulses in all forms (7); * chillies, chilly powder, tamarind and

* Except when sold in sealed containers.

CHAPTER 15.
Revenue and Finance.
SALES TAX.
Goods not taxed.

turmeric, whole or powdered, (9)* ; eggs (15) ; firewood and charcoal (18) ; fish (19)* ; flour including *atta, maida, suji* and bran, (20)* ; flowers (21) ; food and non-alcoholic drinks consumed at a hotel, restaurant, refreshment room, eating house or other place where such food and drinks are served (except when the cost of food and drink served at one time by one person exceeds one rupee) (22) ; fresh fruits (23) ; fresh vegetables and edible tumers (25) ; gur (26) ; kerosene (28) ; *kum-kum* (30) ; *mangalsutra* with black glass beads, sold at a rate not exceeding Rs. 5, each (31) ; meat (33)* ; milk, whole or separated (34) ; salt (37) ; slates and slate sticks and crayons, foot-rules, exercise and drawing books and lead pensils, and mathematical and drawing instrument boxes used by primary and secondary school students (38) ; text-books, books for supplementary reading and school atlases sanctioned by the State Government, Director of Education for the State of Maharashtra, the Educational Inspectors of Divisions or the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board or approved by the Maharashtra Municipal Schools Committee (41) ; and water, other than aerated and mineral waters (42) ;

(*iii*) Implements or raw materials of cottage industries, e.g., *charkha* and other implements used in the production of handspun yarn or handwoven cloth as may be specified by the State Government by notification in the official gazette. Commission agents will not generally pay any of the taxes, and in cases where they have to pay, provision exists for arranging refund of these taxes to them. In cases where dealers carry on processing or manufacture of goods for sale, it has been provided in the rules that the sales tax paid on the purchases of goods used as raw materials, processing materials, fuel, lubricants containers, packing material, shall set off from the sales tax payable, sale of the manufactured or processed goods.

Goods subject only to one class of tax.

Schedule B lists 79 specific entries and entry 80 " all goods other than those specified from time to time in Schedule A and in the preceding entries". The first 8 of these entries composed of certain raw materials of industry, viz., raw cotton (whether ginned or unginned) (1) ; cotton seeds (2) ; *artificial silk yarn* (3) ; *hides* and skins (4) ; oil-seeds (5) ; raw *silk* and silk yarn (6) ; raw wool, wool tops and woollen yarn (other than knitting yarn) (7) ; and staple fibre and staple fibre yarn (8) ; and entries 9 to 18, which specify those goods out of the goods declared essential by Parliament [under the Essential Goods (Declaration and Regulation of Tax on Sale or Purchase) Act, 1952], which are not specified in Schedule A to the Act, are subject only to the general sales tax and not to the sales tax. On the other hand, entries 19 to 22, viz., betel nuts (19) ; text-books and periodical journals except such text-books and journals as are declared tax-free under entries 38 and 41 of Schedule A, and other than account books, diaries, calendars, and books containing space exceeding eight pages for

* Except when sold in sealed containers.

CHAPTER 15.
Revenue and Finance.
SALES TAX.

being written up (not being exercise books) (20); coal (21); and safety matches (excluding matches used as fire-works) (22), are subject only to the sales tax and not to the general sales tax.

General Sales Tax

The rate of the general sales tax is only one-fourth per cent., in the case of bullion and specie (23), and one per cent., in the case of entries 1 and 2, i.e., raw cotton and cotton seeds, and only three pies in the rupee in the case of entries 3 to 8 and entry 24 [articles made of gold and silver (of fineness not less than 75 per cent.) not containing any precious stones, synthetic or artificial precious stones, or pearls, real, artificial or cultured]. In all other cases it is six pies in the rupee.

Sales Tax.

The sales tax, however, is graded from one-fourth per cent., in the case of bullion and specie (23) and articles made of gold and silver, etc. (24) to three pies in the rupee in the case of entries 19 to 22 and entry 80. On several items, which may be said to form middle-class requirements, the rate is six pies in the rupee and on several other entries, which may be classed as "luxuries," it is twelve pies in the rupee. A sales tax of fifteen pies in the rupee is imposed on goods mentioned in entry 79-A "textile fabrics of any kind including *saris, dhotis,* sheets, *chaddars,* blankets and other similar articles [except (i) cloth woven on handlooms, (ii) coarse and medium cotton cloth woven in mills or on powerlooms, and (iii) tracing cloth] sold at a rate not less than Rs. 3 per yard."

Administrative Organisation.

An independent Sales Tax Office existed for the whole of the Ratnagiri district with headquarters at Ratnagiri, from May 1953; but eventually it was closed down in October 1955 and the district has been split up into three divisions and the allotment is made as under, amongst the neighbouring district offices for the purpose of the administration of the Sales Tax Act:—

(*i*) The following areas are attached to the Sales Tax Officer, Kolhapur:—

Talukas.—(1) Ratnagiri, (2) Sangameshwar, (3) Lanje-mahal, (4) Rajapur, (5) Kankavli mahal, (6) Deogad, (7) Malvan, (8) Vengurla mahal, (9) Kudal mahal and (10) Sawantwadi.

(*ii*) The following areas are attached to the Sales Tax Officer, Satara:—

Talukas.—(1) Chiplun, (2) Khed, (3) Guhagar and (4) Dapoli.

(*iii*) The only taluka of Mandangad has been allotted to the Sales Tax Officer, Thana, as it is adjacent to his jurisditcion and is easily accessible.

The headquarters of the above three divisions are at the respective district headquarter places, viz., (1) Kolhapur, (2) Satara and (3) Thana, each under a Sales Tax Officer. A staff of five Inspectors is working under each of the three Sales Tax Officers. One Sales Tax Officer is in charge of the whole of Ratnagiri district and a portion of Kolhapur City only for the purpose of assessment work and the

SALES TAX.

Administrative Organisation.

administration of the Sales Tax Act. Statement 'A' shows the total number of dealers in Ratnagiri district.

The Sales Tax Officer exercises the powers delegated to him under the Bombay Sales Tax Act and Rules for the general administration of the Act in his charge. He registers and licenses dealers, who are liable to pay tax on their sales and is invested with the power of assessing them. He receives periodical returns from dealers who are registered, showing their gross turnover during the period and the tax payable by them. He checks the returns with the assistance of the Sales Tax Inspectors working under him, passes orders of assessment and takes steps for the recovery of tax assessed. He has also to detect cases of evasion of tax. He is the head of his office and is primarily responsible for the general administration of the sales tax law.

The Officer next above the Sales Tax Officer is the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax (Administration), of the circle, which includes Ratnagiri district. He is stationed at Poona. The Sales Tax Officer seeks clarification and advice from him in certain matters relating to the administration of the Act. He has also to submit to the Assistant Commissioner all cases which he is not competent to deal with. Appeals against the orders passed by the Sales Tax Officer lie with the Appellate Assistant Commissioner of the Circle—a separate post created for the purpose—and from the Appellate Assistant Commissioner to the Additional Commissioner of Sales Tax, Central Division, stationed at Bombay and from the Additional Commissioner to the Sales Tax Tribunal. The Commissioner of Sales Tax, Maharashtra State, Bombay, is the Head of the Department.

Statistics of Collections.

The following table gives for the years noted, the amount of sales tax collected in Ratnagiri District since the introduction of the Sales Tax Act in 1946.

Year.	Sales Tax Receipts. Rs.	a.	p.
1946/47 (From 1st October 1946).	86,905	0	0
1947-48	3,68,332	0	0
1948-49	3,91,417	0	0
1949-50	7,35,385	0	0
1950-51	9.66,425	0	0
1951-52	9,24,968	0	0
1952-53	7,45,109	7	5
1953-54	5,56,269	11	6
1954-55	7,53,634	0	1
1955-56	6,70,881	11	9
1956-57	8,80,950	0	11
1957-58	8,13,893	11	0

CHAPTER 15.
Revenue and Finance.
SALES TAX SOURCES.

The annual expenditure incurred on establishment approximately works out at 3 per cent. of the sales tax receipts.

Ratnagiri district is considered to be one of the backward districts with no large-scale industries. The main occupation of the people is agriculture, the produce being mainly rice, *nagli* and *wari* which is the staple food of the people. The grain produce is hardly sufficient for four to five months of the year and the district has to depend on the imports from outside areas. A greater portion of population has to migrate for their livelihood to big cities like Bombay, Poona and Ahmadabad. Small-scale industries are however, in existence, comprising of ten *bidi* factories, three *kaju* factories, one factory each of ice, soap and silica.

Mangoes of Alphonso variety are produced in large quantity in Ratnagiri district. A mango-pulp factory is recently started for supplying mango-pulp in closed tins for sale. Two iron-mines have also been started. The district imports mangalore tiles on a large scale and also *dandeli* wood from Kanara district. This yields a fairly big amount of sales tax revenue.

STATEMENT A.

Statement showing the number of dealers under Bombay Sales Tax Act, Central Sales Tax Act, Bombay Sales of Intoxicants Taxation Act, and Bombay Sales of Motor Spirit Taxation Act for Ratnagiri district.

Name of Area. 1	Dealers under Bombay Sales Tax Act. 2	Dealers under Central Sales Tax Act. 3	Dealers under Motor Spirit Act. 4	Dealers under Intoxicants Taxation Act. 5
1. Sangameshwar Taluka ..	65	8	..	4
2. Ratnagiri Taluka ..	182	20	4	11
3. Lanja Mahal ..	21	..	..	..
4. Rajapur Taluka ..	55	12	..	5
5. Kankavli Mahal ..	57	27	2	3
6. Deogad Taluka ..	46	3	3	5
7. Malvan Taluka ..	87	28	1	9
8. Vengurla Mahal ..	85	51	..	6
9. Dapoli Taluka ..	86	13	4	1
10 Sawantwadi Taluka ..	107	61	3	6
11. Khed Taluka ..	52	11	1	1
12. Chiplun Taluka ..	136	17	4	4
13. Guhagar Taluka ..	35	2	..	2
Total ..	1,014	253	22	57

STATEMENT B.

Statement showing the information in respect of the Collection Charges and their proportion to the Sales Tax Collection in respect of Ratnagiri district.

Year. 1	Amount collected. 2 (Rs. a. p.)	Collection charges. 3 (Rs. a. p.)	Remarks. 4
1946-47	86,905 0 0	....	Office was not in existence at Ratnagiri as Ratnagiri district was under the jurisdiction of the Sales Tax Officer, Satara.
1947-48	3,68,332 0 0	....	
1948-49 ..	3,91,417 0 0	....	
1949-50	7,35,385 0 0	....	
1950-51	9,66,425 0 0	....	
1951-52	9,24,968 0 0	....	
1952-53	7,45,109 7 5	12,098 9 3	
1953-54	5,56,259 11 6	22,360 0 0	
1954-55	7,53,634 0 1	30,592 6 0	
		35,292 6 0	
1955-56 (from 1st April 1955 to 30th September 1955).	3,18,110 6 6	11,423 7 0*	For whole Ratnagiri district.

STATEMENT B—*contd.*

Year.	Amount collected.	Collection charges.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	
1st October 1955 to 31st March 1956.	1,08,129 2 2	N.A.	For the areas transferred to Kolhapur district.
Do. ..	80,057 2 0	N.A.	For the areas transferred to Satara district.
Do. ..	1,33,542 5 0	N.A.	For the areas transferred to Belgaum district.
1st April 1956 to 31st October 1956.	2,68,944 15 2	N.A.	Do.
1st April 1956 to 31st March 1957.	2,91,285 2 5	N.A.	For the areas transferred to Satara district.
Do.	3,20,722 3 9	....	For the areas transferred to Kolhapur district (including areas transferred from Belgaum from 1st November 1956).
	Rs. nP	Rs. nP.	
1957-58	5,34,778·20	9,197·32*	For the areas transferred to Kolhapur district.
	2,80,015·13	....	For the areas transferred to Satara district.

*(Additional staff was given as shown under note below).

1 Sales Tax Officer (Additional), 2 Sales Tax Inspectors and 2 Clerks.

THE REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT.

UNDER THE INDIAN REGISTRATION ACT (XVI of 1908), compulsory registration is required in the case of certain documents and optional registration is provided for certain other documents. As a rule, fees are levied for such registration, but the State Government have exempted co-operative societies registered under the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act (VII of 1925). Certain types of societies, such as the urban credit societies, central financing agencies and housing societies (formed of persons belonging to classes other than agriculturists or backward communities) enjoy restricted exemption in respect of certain documents involving a certain prescribed consideration. All other co-operative societies enjoy un-restricted exemption. Similarly, copies of awards under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act (XXVIII of 1947) and certificates under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947, are registered free.

Marriages under the Parsi Marriages and Divorce Act (III of 1936) and the Special Marriages Act, 1954 (which has been in force since 1st January 1955), are also registered. Memoranda of marriages are also registered by the registering officers under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1953.

Registry Officers.

In 1957, there were 12 sub-registries in the district at Chiplun, Dapoli, Deogad, Guhagar, Kankavli, Khed, Malvan, Mandangad, Rajapur, Ratnagiri, Sangameshwar (Deorukh) and Sawantwadi. Vengurla and Kudal Petas are included in the registration sub-district of Sawantwadi and the Sub-Registrar, Sawantwadi, holds his office at Vengurla and Kudal, periodically on days notified in that behalf. Lanje Peta is included in the registration sub-district of Rajapur.

Inspector General of Registration.

An independent post of the Inspector General of Registration, is created with effect from July 3, 1958 and he performs the following duties in addition to his own duties as Inspector-General of Registration for the Maharashtra State: (1) Registrar General of Births, Deaths and Marriages; and (2) Chief Controlling Stamp Authority under the Hyderabad Stamp Act in the Marathwada Region.

District Registrar.

The Collector of Ratnagiri is the ex-officio District Registrar. The registration unit is separate from the revenue staff; but the District Registrar has powers of supervision over the entire district registration staff. The Sub-Registrars are appointed by the Inspector-General of registration; but the District Registrar has powers to make such appointments in temporary vacancies.

The District Registrar is required to carry out the instructions of the Inspector-General in all matters and if he has any suggestions to make for the improvement of the registration system, he submits them to the Inspector-General, The District Registrar solves the

CHAPTER 15. — Revenue and Finance. REGISTRATION. District Registrar.

difficulties encountered by the Sub-Registrars in the course of their day to day work. He visits the sub-registry offices in his district at least once in every two years, and sends his memoranda of inspection to the Inspector-General. He hears appeals and applications preferred to him under sections 72 and 73 of the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) against refusals to register documents by the Sub-Registrars under him. Under sections 25 and 34 of the Act, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents and appearance of executants provided the delay does not exceed four months, and to direct the documents concerned to be registered on payment of a fine not exceeding ten times the proper registration fee. He is also competent to order refunds in the case of surcharges and to grant full or partial remission of safe custody fees in suitable cases. A will or codicil may be deposited with him under a sealed cover and it may be got registered at the cost of the party desiring it, after the depositor's death. He is also authorised to receive declarations under the Muslim Personal (Shariat) Application Act (XXVI of 1937), and to register births and deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Registration Act (VI of 1886).

Sub-Registrars.

The Sub-Registrars are immediately subordinate to the District Registrar. Their chief function is to register documents which fulfil the prescribed requirements and for which the required stamp duty and registration fees are paid. The Sub-Registrar keeps record of such registered documents and sends, to officers concerned, extracts from documents affecting immoveable property in respect of which record of rights is maintained, for making mutations therein. On application by parties, he issues certified copies from the preserved records of registered documents.

Every Sub-Registrar is an *ex-officio* Registrar of Parsi Marriages, under the Parsi Marriages and Divorce Act (III of 1936) and he is also the Registrar of Marriages under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, V of 1954. The Sub-Registrar working as head-quarter Sub-Registrar at Ratnagiri is vested with powers of solemnising marriages under the Special Marriages Act (XLIII of 1954). He is also vested with powers under the Muslim Personal (Shariat) Application Act. He is further the *ex-officio* Assistant Registrar of Companies and Registrar of Births and Deaths under Act VI of 1886. The principle is to utilise as far as possible, the spare time of the sub-registrars in the slack seasons, and to entrust them with some responsible work of the revenue department. One Sub-Registrar in the district worked as *ex-officio* Mahalkari in 1957 and was empowered to try assistance suits of annual rents up to Rs. 200 under the Land Revenue Code. The Head-quarter Sub-Registrar is also required to do work relating to all stamp matters under the Indian Stamp Act, 1899, which was previously being done by the Collector's Office.

CHAPTER 15. Revenue and Finance. REGISTRATION. Sub-Registrars.

The work of the Sub-Registrars is inspected by the Inspector of Registration, Satara Division (comprising the districts of Sangli, Satara, Kolhapur and Ratnagiri), and the District Registrar, and the inspection memoranda drawn up by these officers are scrutinised by the Inspector-General of Registration. The Prant Officers also inspect the sub-registries and submit their inspection reports to the District Registrar, who forwards them to the Inspector-General of Registration, if they contain anything of importance or interest deserving the notice of the Inspector-General of Registration.

Inspector of Registration.

The Inspector of Registration is directly subordinate to the Inspector-General and does not exercise any administrative control over the registration offices. His duty is mainly confined to the inspection of the technical work of the registration offices, including the central record, and to audit their accounts. He inspects the books in the central office of record and reports to the District Registrar about their condition, so that any records which are in danger of being destroyed may be recopied and authenticated according to law. The Inspector examines the books, indexes, accounts and other records in the offices of the Sub-Registrars once a year and sends one copy of his memorandum of inspection to the District Registrar and another to the Inspector-General for approval.

Statistics.

The average annual income of the Ratnagiri registration district is Rs. 36,738 and the average annual expenditure is Rs. 42,899 (based on the figures for the triennium, 1955 to 1957). The copying of the registered documents is done in three of the offices by means of photography and in the remaining nine offices by hand. In all, 5,003 documents were registered in the district during 1957. Of these, 4,804 documents, falling under compulsory registration, were of the aggregate value of Rs. 24,15,570; 55 documents, falling under optional registration, were of the aggregate value of Rs. 44,972; and 39 documents, affecting moveable property were of the aggregate value of Rs. 46,751 and 105 were Wills. Two hundred and seventy-four memoranda of marriages were registered under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, V of 1954 and seven marriages were solemnised under the Special Marriages Act (XLIII of 1954)

THE STAMP DEPARTMENT.

STAMPS. Organisation.

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF STAMPS, Bombay, is the authority who controls the supply and sale of State stamps in the State and the Controller of Stamps, Nasik, is the authority which controls the supply and sale of postal stamps in the State. In Ratnagiri district, the Collector as the administrative head of the district holds general charge of the district administration of the Stamp Department. There is no independent officer in the district specially in charge of Stamps. The work is done by the senior clerk in the District Treasury Office under the supervision of the Treasury Officer, Ratnagiri. He is in charge of the local depot at Ratnagiri and is responsible

CHAPTER 15. — Revenue and Finance. STAMPS.

for the maintenance of the stock of stamps, their distribution to the branch depots in case of emergency and their sale to the public. The revenue authorities are empowered to grant refunds of the value of unused, spoiled and obsolete stamps presented to them within the prescribed period. Branch depots are located at each of the 12 taluka and two mahal headquarters and are in the charge of the Sub-Treasury Officer, i.e., Mamlatdar or Mahalkari as the case may be.

To suit public convenience, stamps are sold not only at local and branch depots but also at various centres by vendors authorised to sell stamps. There are eleven vendors in the district. In addition to this, Sub-Post-Masters at Mandangad and Bankot sell non-judicial and judicial stamps. The total income from stamp duty realised in Ratnagiri district, during 1957-58, was Rs. 1,48,147·77 nP. for judicial stamps and Rs. 68,688·61 nP. for non-judicial stamps. The stamp vendors are allowed a small discount and this in 1957-58, amounted to Rs. 884·69 nP. under judicial stamps and Rs. 1,589·70 nP., under non-judicial stamps.

THE MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT.

MOTOR VEHICLES. Motor Vehicles Act.

THE MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT deals with the administration of the Motor Vehicles Tax and the Motor Vehicles (Amendment) Act (Act XV of 1956) and the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act LXV of 1958. Under the first Act, all motor vehicles have to be registered ; all drivers have to take out a licence, which is given only on their passing, a prescribed test of competence ; the hours of work of drivers of public vehicles are restricted ; and third party insurance of all vehicles plying in public places has to be effected. It gives power to State Governments to subject vehicles to be licensed for public hire, specifying their routes and also the freight rate. Fees are leviable for registration and issue of licences and permits.

State Transport Authority.

There is a State Transport Authority for each State which co-ordinates the activities of the Regional Transport Authorities under it. The Regional Transport Authority controls the motor transport in the region and deals with the issue of permits to different categories of transport vehicles according to the policy laid down by the State Transport Authority and the State Government from time to time. It also performs such duties as grant of authorisations to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences, taking departmental action against those permit-holders who contravene any condition of the permit, etc., and prescribing policy in certain important matters relating to motor transport in the region.

Regional Transport Authority.

The Regional Transport Authority for the Thana Region with its headquarters at Thana, has jurisdiction over the Ratnagiri district and also over the districts of Thana, Kolaba, Nasik, Dhulia and Jalgaon. It consists of 12 members, including the Secretary, the

other members, the official and eight non-official, being nominated by the State Government under sub-section (1) of section 44 of the Motor Vehicles Act.

Other Staff.

The immediate subordinates to the Regional Transport Officer is the Regional Supervisor. He assists the Regional Transport Officer in executing his duties and looks after the office administration. Whenever the Regional Transport Officer is out of the headquarters, the Regional Supervisor acts for him. He supervises the work of Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors.

There are two Assistant Regional Transport Officers, six Motor Vehicles Inspectors and nine Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors working under the Regional Transport Officer. The Inspectors carry out the work of registration, inspection of motor vehicles, testing of drivers and conductors, checking of motor vehicles and detecting of offences under the Motor Vehicles Act.

The Assistant Inspectors carry out the office routine work, assist the Inspectors in carrying out inspections of vehicles and also do the work of the Inspectors when the latter are on tour or on special duty.

Liaison with Police Department.

The Department has liaison with the Police Department. The Police Department carries out periodical checks of motor vehicles and detects offences under the Act. It also attends to reference from the Motor Vehicles Department regarding verification of character of applicants for public service vehicle authorisations, conductors' licences, taxi cab permits, etc. It also helps in the verification of non-use of vehicles and recoveries of arrears of taxes and in specifying particular places for bus stops, etc. The District Magistrate comes into relation with this department in connection with imposition of restrictions on road transport, fixation of speed limits, and location of motor stands at various places, etc.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

Under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, taxes are levied on all motor vehicles, except those designated and used solely for carrying out agricultural operations on farms and farm lands. The taxes are based on the type of vehicles (e.g., motor cycles and cycles, goods vehicles, passenger vehicles, etc.), and their laden or unladen weight. The Act has removed all municipal and State tolls on motor vehicles. The rules made under this Act lay down that when a vehicle is to be registered within the State, the registering authority (i.e., the Regional Transport Officer), shall verify the particulars furnished in the application for registration (e.g., the make of the vehicle, its capacity, etc.), and determine the rate of the tax for which the vehicle is liable. Every registered owner who wants to use or keep for use any vehicle in the State, has to pay the tax determined, stating the limits within which he intends to use the vehicle, i.e., whether

CHAPTER 15.
Revenue and Finance.
MOTOR VEHICLES.

only within the limits of a particular municipality or cantonment or throughout the State. A token for the payment of the tax will be issued by the registering authority and this has to be attached to and carried on the vehicle at all times when the vehicle is in use in a public place. A fresh declaration has to be made annually, or every time the tax has to be paid (i.e., quarterly, half-yearly or annually). The registering authority before issuing token in respect of the payment of the tax has to satisfy itself that every declaration is complete in all respects and the proper amount of tax has been paid.

With a view to facilitate the convenience of the travelling public and for the smooth administration of the Department an office has been established at Ratnagiri from 22nd March 1948, with a Motor Vehicles Inspector.

CHAPTER 16—DEVELOPMENTAL DEPARTMENTS

Developmental Departments.
AGRICULTURE.
Organisation.

THE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

THE DISTRICT AGRICULTURAL OFFICER is in charge of the Agricultural Department in Ratnagiri district (In Maharashtra Agricultural Service Class II). He is responsible to the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Bombay Division, Nasik.

The Superintending Agricultural Officer is responsible to the Director of Agriculture, Maharashtra State, Poona. The Director of Agriculture is assisted at the headquarters by four Joint Directors.

The District Agricultural Officer is assisted at the headquarters by an Assistant District Agricultural Officer and three other Agricultural Officers, who are in charge of three revenue sub-divisions viz. Chiplun, Rajapur and Sawantwadi, where they supervise the work of Agricultural Assistants in all the talukas within their jurisdiction. At present there are 15 such Agricultural Assistants in the district.

Of the 11 talukas and four mahals of the district six talukas have been covered by the National Extension Service Blocks. The District Agricultural Officer supervises the agricultural work of these blocks.

The following extension activities are under the supervision of the District Agricultural Officer.

(*a*) Organising the work of agricultural demonstration centres and holding field demonstrations.

(*b*) Organisation of crop protection service.

(*c*) Supervision of crop cutting experiments and conducting trials of improved seeds and fertilisers.

(*d*) Inspection of offices and depots in the district and guiding the staff.

(*e*) Submission of periodical reports such as season and crop reports, forecast and weather reports, etc.

(*f*) Working 'grow more food' schemes.

(*g*) Carrying out rural development activities.

(*h*) Working of the taluka seed farms.

(*i*) Working of the Five-Year Plan schemes.

CHAPTER 16.
—
Developmental Departments.
AGRICULTURE.
Demonstration and Propaganda.

(j) Preparation of working plans of National Extension Service Blocks, supervising the agricultural work and preparing agricultural schemes which are suitable to particular blocks.

There are six Agricultural Demonstration Centres instituted on cultivators' farms in the district under the supervision of the Agricultural Assistants, where the owner cultivators adopt the agricultural improvements advocated by the department. Field demonstrations of the standing crops and other improved practices are held during every season.

Propaganda work in connection with the various agricultural activities and schemes is carried out by the Agricultural Assistants. To facilitate the implementation of the schemes every Agricultural Assistant has under his charge, a depot, where improved seeds, manures etc. are stored for sale. The department receives the assistance of the co-operative institutions in the work of distribution of manures, seeds and insecticides.

In addition to the Agricultural Demonstration Centres there are taluka development boards working on similar lines. All these taluka development boards now will be converted into multipurpose societies.

Experiments and Research.

Agricultural Experiments and Research: To carry out the work of agronomic research on various crops research stations are instituted at the following places.

(*i*) *Agricultural Research Station, Shirgaon.*—Research on Paddy.
(*ii*) *Agricultural Research Station, Phonda.*—Research on Paddy.
(*iii*) *Agricultural Research Station, Hatkhamba.*—Research on Paddy.
(*iv*) *Regional Cocoanut Research Station, Bhatye.*—Research on Cocoanut.
(*v*) *Regional Cashewnut Research Station, Vengurla.*—Research on Cashewnut.

In addition to these research stations it is proposed to start one Mango Research Station in this district. All these Stations are under the direct control of the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Bombay Division.

All the activities in a particular division are under the control of the Superintending Agricultural Officer, who is assisted by two Deputy Directors of Agriculture, one for research and education and the other for engineering, soil conservation and bunding, etc.

In addition to the Deputy Directors, there are also various Specialist Officers under the Director of Agriculture, who have their headquarters at Poona. These Specialist Officers have jurisdiction throughout the State and have subordinates working in sub-divisions and districts. They are in charge of mechanical cultivation, lift

irrigation, boring, horticulture, soil conservation, etc. Other officers working under the Director of Agriculture are the Statistician, Plant Pathologist, Agricultural Entomologist, Professor of Agronomy, Economic Botanist, Professor of Agricultural Economics, Cotton Botanist, and Cotton Development and Fibre Development Officers. These Specialist Officers carry on their work in the district with the help of the District Agricultural Officer.

Horticulture.

Horticulture.—There is one nursery at Nandgaon in Kankavli mahal where mango grafts, cocoanut seedlings and other horticultural plants are prepared and sold to the cultivators. In addition to this nursery the Agricultural Research Station Shirgaon and Mirjole school also prepare mango grafts. Similarly, technical advice in horticultural matters is rendered to cultivators. Recently in each National Extension Service Block horticultural schemes were prepared under which long term loans for growing mango, cashewnut, cocoanut and other fruit plants are given to cultivators.

A cashewnut development scheme is sanctioned for this district. One Agricultural Officer is in charge of this scheme.

Agricultural School.

Agricultural School, Mirjole.—The school for the present is established on Agricultural Research Station, Shirgaon, Ratnagiri taluka where the students do their practical work. The school was started in the year 1949 to impart practical training in agriculture and allied subjects viz., poultry, animal husbandry, carpentry, smithy, etc. The two years course includes various subjects viz., agriculture, animal husbandry and dairying, horticulture, co-operation and agricultural legislation, public health and civics., village administration, forestry, agricultural extension, Hindi and rural development. The school with a capacity for 40 students mainly admits candidates from the district. The students are paid stipend of Rs. 20 per month during their training period and are given two *khaki* uniforms and free lodging.

There is a Superintendent in charge of this school who is assisted by one Agricultural Officer, and three Agricultural Assistants carrying out the work of research and practical education. This school is under the supervision of Superintending Agricultural Officer, Bombay Division, Nasik.

Animal Husbandry.

Animal Husbandry.—The work of livestock and poultry has been transferred from Agricultural Department to veterinary department. Cattle Development Officer supervises the schemes for cattle development which are implemented by the staff of the District Agricultural Officer.

There are no cattle breeding farms or societies in this district. However, at the Gopuri institute one herd of Dangi breed is maintained and the department gives a subsidy of Rs. 200 every year to the institute. The bulls etc. available from this institute are supplied to the cultivators for extending livestock improvement activities in the district.

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. AGRICULTURE. Poultry.

Government has opened one premium bull centre in scheduled areas of Mandangad taluka for the cattle improvement work entirely at Government cost. Two Dangi bulls are kept at Latwan.

Poultry.—Except a very small unit of poultry attached to the Agricultural School, Shirgaon, there are no other poultry centres in this district. However birds of Red Island Rhodes and White Leghorn breeds are distributed by the department to the cultivators from the stock at Kolhapur or Poona.

District Agricultural Officers.

The organisation of the Agriculture Department in the District.

(*i*) *District Agricultural Officer, (M. A. S. Class II) Officer in charge of the district.*

- Agricultural Officer, Research Sub-Division, Chiplun.
  - Agricultural Assistants, Taluka.
  - Agricultural Assistants in charge, seed farm.
- Agricultural Officer, Research Sub-Division, Rajapur.
  - Taluka and Circle Agricultural Assistants in charge, seed farm.
- Agricultural Officer, Research Sub-Division, Sawantwadi.
  - Taluka and Circle Agricultural Assistants.
- Assistant D. A. O. helping in office-work at Head-quarters.

Under the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Bombay Division, Nasik:

(*ii*) Agricultural Officer in charge, Regional Cocoanut Nursery. .. ..

(*iii*) Agricultural Officer in charge, Cashewnut Research Station and Assistants. ..

(*iv*) Agricultural Officer in charge, Agricultural Research Station, Shirgaon; and Assistants. .. ..

(*v*) Agricultural Officer in charge, Agricultural Research Station, Phonda, and Assistants. .. ..

(*vi*) Agricultural Officer in charge, Mango Research Station and Assistants. ..

(*vii*) Superintendent in charge, Agricultural School, Mirjole, Agricultural Officer and Agricultural Assistant. ..

(*viii*) Agricultural Officer, Cashewnut Development Scheme, Vengurla; and Agricultural Assistants. .. ..

(*ix*) Agricultural Officer in charge, Garden-*cum*-Demonstration Centre. ..

(*x*) Agricultural Officer in charge, Agricultural Research Station, Hatkhamba. ..

(*xi*) Agricultural Assistant in charge Nandgaon Nursery. .. ..

The staff of the District Agricultural Officers carry out all the work of various agricultural production schemes etc. in addition to their usual work. The staff of District Agricultural Officers carry out other work directed by the various specialists like Plant Pathologist, Horticulturist, Agricultural Chemists, Economic Botanists, Professors of Economics, Professors of Agronomy, etc.

CHAPTER 16. Developmental Departments. AGRICULTURE. District Agricultural Officers.

CIVIL VETERINARY DEPARTMENT.*

CIVIL VETERINARY DEPARTMENT. Functions.

THE VETERINARY ACTIVITIES IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT are controlled by the Divisional Veterinary Officer, Kolhapur Division, Kolhapur, who is in charge of two districts, viz., Kolhapur and Ratnagiri. He is an officer of Class II rank in the Maharashtra Veterinary Service and is directly responsible and subordinate to the Director of Animal Husbandry, Maharashtra State, Poona.

Organisation.

The main functions of the Civil Veterinary Department are treatment of sick animals, control of cattle epidemics, and castrations. It also conducts the work of control and destruction of ticks, and advises people in the hygienic methods of animal management and participates in various cattle fairs and shows held at various places in the State by opening veterinary stalls etc. for propaganda.

Veterinary Dispensaries.

In 1958, there were ten veterinary dispensaries in the district located at Ratnagiri, Deorukh, Chiplun, Khed, Dapoli, Rajapur, Deogad, Kankavli, Sawantwadi and Malvan. There were three veterinary aid centres located at Latwan, Malgund and Kelshi.

The veterinary officers in charge of the dispensaries are Government Officers of Class III in the Maharashtra Veterinary Service. There are two or three fixed centres in the jurisdiction of each veterinary dispensary, which are periodically visited by the veterinary officers or stockmen for treating local animals, castration, etc.

Statistics of Diseases, Inoculations and Vaccinations.

In 1957-58, 11,172 animals were treated for contagious and non-contagious diseases and 759 castrations were performed at the veterinary dispensaries in Ratnagiri district. The veterinary staff toured in the villages and treated 19,554 animals and performed 1,399 castrations. Following are the statistics of outbreaks of main contagious cattle diseases and the inoculations and vaccinations carried out during 1957-58.

*The Department is now re-named as the 'Animal Husbandry Department'.

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. CIVIL VETERINARY DEPARTMENT. Statistics of Diseases, Inoculations and Vaccinations.

CONTAGIOUS CATTLE DISEASES, INOCULATIONS AND VACCINATIONS (1957-58).

Name of the Disease.	Number of outbreaks reported.	Number of inocula-tion and vaccina-tions carried out.
Haemorrhagic Septicaemia ..	33	61,171
Black Quarter.	58	13,954
Anthrax ..	3	2,307
Ranikhet	8	1,12,626
Fowl Pox	5	3,078

Eradication of Ticks.

In 1957-58, the animals treated with Hexidole powder preparations, for the same purpose, numbered 45,038.

THE FOREST DEPARTMENT.

Forest Organisation.

THE HEAD OF THE FOREST DEPARTMENT IN THE STATE is the Chief Conservator of Forests, whose headquarters are at Poona. There is also a Deputy Chief Conservator of Forests at Poona, who assists the Chief Conservator in his work. For administrative purposes, the whole State is divided into five 'Circles' as shown below :—

Circle.		Head Quarters.
(1) Poona Circle.	..	Poona.
(2) Nasik Circle.	..	Nasik.
(3) Amravati Circle.	..	Amravati.
(4) Nagpur Circle.	..	Nagpur.
(5) Bombay Circle.	..	Bombay.

At the head of each Circle is a Conservator of Forests.

The Conservators have under them Divisional Forest Officers and Sub-Divisional Forest Officers to look after the administration of Divisions and independent Sub-Divisions respectively. The Divisional Forest Officers belong to Maharashtra Forest Service, Class I; and the Sub-Divisional Forest Officers in charge of independent Sub-Divisions to M. F. S., Class II. Some Divisions are divided into sub-Divisions which are in charge of Sub-Divisional Forest Officers who belong to Maharashtra Forest Service, Class II and unlike the Sub-Divisional Forest Officers in charge of independent Sub-Divisions they are under the control of the Divisional Forest Officers. The Divisions or Sub-Divisions, are divided into small executive parts called 'Ranges' and each Range is managed by a Range Forest Officer under the control of the Divisional Forest Officer or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer as the case may be. The Range Forest Officer

is a non-gazetted subordinate officer (Class III) who is usually trained at one of the Forest Colleges in India i.e., those at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore. Each Range is sub-divided into 'Rounds' and each 'Round' is managed by a Round Officer or Forester, who is usually trained at the Forest Classes in the State; each Round is sub- divided into 'Beats' and each Beat is managed by a Beat Guard.

The Sawantwadi Forest Sub-Division and part of Janjira Forest Sub-Division falling under Bombay Circle are held by the Sub-Divisional Forest Officer, Sawantwadi and Janjira. Administratively, Janjira forms part of Kolaba district. The following are the Ranges in the Sawantwadi Sub-Division and part of Janjira Sub-Division :—

Name of the Sub-Division.	Name of Range.	Headquarters.
Sawantwadi	.. Sawantwadi Kudal Kankavli	.. Sawantwadi. Kudal. Kankavli.
Janjira	.. Mahad	.. Mahad.

Forest Area.

The total area of Government Forests of Sawantwadi, and Janjira Sub-Divisions is 60·91 square miles, details of which are given below :—

	Protected Forests.	Reserved Forests.
Sawantwadi Sub-Division	.. 3·21 square miles	.. 53·98 square miles.
Janjira Sub-Division	.. ....	3·72 square miles.
Total	.. 3·21 square miles.	57·70 square miles.

The forests in these Sub-Divisions are scattered in small pockets. In Ratnagiri district the majority of the forests are owned by *Malkidars* or *Inamdars* and the extent of Government forest is very little. A scheme to acquire *Malki* forests is under operation and by the end of Second Five-Year Plan about 26,742 acres have been acquired by paying compensation.

The forest area in Ratnagiri lies within 15° – 37′ and 16° – 18′ north latitude and 73° – 30′ and 74° – 15′ east longitude. To its north lies Kankavli mahal and to the east parts of Kolhapur and Belgaum collectorates. It is bounded by the Goa territory on its south and Vengurla mahal is on its west.

The annual rainfall in the various parts of the tract is very heavy and varies from 120″ to 200″ being heaviest along the top ridge line of the Sahyadris and it decreases as the elevation drops.

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. FOREST. Organisation.

Due to heavy rainfall, the vegetation is luxuriant and falls into two distinct climatic formations. viz., (1) Bombay sub-tropical evergreen forest and (ii) South Indian tropical moist deciduous forests.

Species.

The species found in sub-tropical evergreen forests are Anjani (Mmnecylon edule), Hirda (Terminalia chebula), Amba (Mangifera Indica), Shendri (Mallotus philippinensis) with understorey of Parajambhul (Clea dioica), Dinda (Leea Macrophylla), Tamalpatra (Cinna momum tamala) etc., At many places canes are also noticed. Some of these areas have been saved from over-exploitation by virtue of maintenance as "Shikar forest" in the old state regime. Most of these forests are on Amboli plateau which is at an altitude of about 3,000'. These forests impart special importance to the Amboli plateau and ghat area for their aesthetic value. These forests are covered by regular working plan and are mostly exploited for firewood and other minor forest produce.

In South Indian tropical moist deciduous forests, the most characteristic species is Teak (Tectona grandis) associated with Ain (Terminalia tomentosa), Kinjal (Terminalia paniculata) Siddum (Tetrameles nudiflora), Koshimb (Scleichera oleosa), Kanai (Albizzia procera), Sawar (Salmalia malabarica), etc., and Satwin (Alstonia scholaris), Bibla (pterocarpus marsupium), Amba (Mangifera indica), Phanas (Artocarpus integrifolia), Shisham (Dalbergia latifolia), Kokum (Garcinia indica), etc., in middle storey.

These forests are worked under a regular working scheme and bring the major part of revenue.

On the abolition of the Research and Working Plan Circle, in the new set-up of re-organised Bombay Circle, there is one Working Plan Divisional Forest Officer between two Circles viz. Bombay Circle and Nasik Circle with headquarters at Nasik. Accordingly the Working Plans Officer at Nasik has jurisdiction over the forests of this Sub-Division.

The Revenue and Forest Departments are closely interconnected in their work. Afforestation and disafforestation are practically joint functions of the Revenue and Forest Departments, since public rights in the lands proposed for afforestation have to be settled by the Revenue Department. Working Plans (described later) for the management and development of forests are prepared solely by the Forest department, but in so far as the prescriptions of a Working Plan affect local supply and the rights and privileges of the inhabitants of the tracts, the approval of the Collector concerned has to be obtained before it is submitted to Government by the Chief Conservator of Forests for sanction.

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. FORESTS. Organisation.

The Divisional Forest Officer is directly responsible for the exploitation and regeneration of the forests according to sanctioned working plans and other orders. He conducts sales, enters into contracts, supplies material to departments and the public, realises revenue and controls expenditure under instructions from the Conservator of Forests.

He also deals with forest offence cases, having power to compound the same. In short, he is responsible for forest administration and management in all matters relating to technical forest operations.

The duties of the Sub-Divisional Forest Officer in charge of an independent Sub-Division are exactly the same as those of the Divisional Forest Officer, while the Assistant Conservator or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer, attached to a division assists the Divisional Forest Officer in the work of inspection and supervision of various kinds of silvicultural works requiring technical knowledge, besides attending to other duties entrusted by the Divisional Forest Officer. The headquarters of the Sub-Divisional Officer, Sawantwadi Sub-Division are at Sawantwadi.

The Range Forest Officer is in executive charge of his range. He is responsible for carrying out, with the help of his Round Officers and Beat Guards, and according to the orders of the Divisional Forest Officer or the Assistant Conservator or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer, all work in his charge, such as marking, reservation, girdling and felling of trees; transport of timber, fuel, etc., to the sale depots; sowing, planting, tending and other silvicultural operations; construction of roads, buildings and wells according to sanctioned plans and estimates; protection of forests and investigation of forest offences; supervision on removal of forest produce by purchasers and by holders of rights and privileges; and issue of forest transit passes and permits.

The Foresters' duties include protection of forests; detection and investigation of offences, issue of forest transit passes and permits; collection of revenue from permits and compensation in offences; preservation of standards (i.e., the number and kind of trees prescribed for preservation and the manner of cutting etc.) in coupes given out to contractors for cutting; inspection and protection of forests; and guidance to and supervision of forest guards. The Forest Guard's functions are to patrol and protect all forests in his beat; repair and maintain forest boundary marks; execute silvicultural works, viz. sowing, planting and creeper-cutting; and detect forest offences.

Classification of Forests: Working Plans.

Under the Indian Forest Act (XVI of 1927), forests are divided into two categories, "reserved" and "protected". Before forests are classified, they have to be subjected to regular settlement by a Forest Settlement Officer, who enquires into the existence of all public and

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. Forests : Classification of Forests. Working Plans.

private rights. In the case of reserved forests, the existing rights are either settled, transferred or commuted. In the case of protected forests, the rights are clearly recorded and regulated. In this Sub-Division there are reserved as well as protected forests as stated before and they are organised and managed according to the prescriptions of the revised "Working Plan". A Working Plan is a document which lays down the details of scientific management of a forest for a prescribed number of years. Before a working plan is drawn up, a survey is made of the growing stock, at times by actual enumeration, and an analysis is made from the stems of standing trees to determine the rate of growth of the principal species with special references to the soil and the climatic conditions of each locality. On the basis of the data thus collected, plans are drawn up for felling, regeneration, silvicultural treatment and protection of forests with provision for the due exercise of the rights and privileges of the people, including grazing of cattle. The preparation of the Working Plan for this Sub-Division has been done by the Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, Central Circle.

Functions of the Department.

The main functions of the Forest Department are exploitation, regeneration, and protection of forests according to sanctioned Working Plans and other orders, and the conduct of sales, entering into contracts and supply of material to Government departments and the public. The salient aspects of the functions are described below :—

(1) *Regeneration and Maintenance.*

(1) *Regeneration and Maintenance*.—As the area is cut and tree growth removed, it is regenerated with fresh crop. The principal duty of a forest officer is the protection of the forests in his charge. Great care and precaution are required against damages by man, animals, and insects and other pests and against adverse climatic influences and other inanimate agencies. Damage by man is caused by: (1) lighting of fires, (2) encroachments, (3) faulty exploitation methods, including illicit cuttings and (4) misuse of forest rights and privileges. Though occasionally forest fires may originate from natural causes, in the vast majority of cases they are due to human action, either within or outside the forest. The most frequent cause is carelessness or recklessness and sometimes illicit *shikar*, but occasionally there is incendiarism. To prevent damage by fire, the whole-hearted support and co-operation of the public are required. This co-operation is secured through the authority and influence of the village patil or headman. Precautionary measures like fire-tracing and quick putting out of fire are also taken by the department in good time against accidental fires. Clearing of shrubby growth along the roads and paths is also done to avert any fire spreading in the forest. Rigid patrolling and vigilant watch against unauthorised felling and removal of forest produce by the villagers are resorted to. Offenders in respect of unauthorised grazing and other damage from cattle are dealt with severely under the Forest Act and other laws.

(2) *Systems of Management.*

(2) *System of Management.*—The area under the management of the department in the district is worked under the various silvicultural systems like clear felling, selection-cum-improvement felling, etc. The whole area of this Sub-Division has been grouped into four working circles. Prescriptions for each are as under :—

Protection of Working Circle.

This working circle includes forests of Amboli plateau, ghat and the precipitous hill slopes. The functions of the foresters falling under this working circle are to improve and maintain adequate cover over steep areas for conservation of soil and moisture and to realise physical, climatic and aesthetic benefits, to meet the demands for fuel, to give minor forest produce, etc. Therefore, the prescriptions for these forests are light improvement fellings in the overwood, supplemented by similar light thinning (if necessary) in congested patches of the underwood. Planting in natural blanks of Mango, *Kaju, Phanas* and other fruit trees and other species like *Hirda, Suru, Shikekai,* etc. is prescribed. The forests will be worked on a felling cycle of 15 years.

Teak Timber working Circle.

This includes most of the areas bearing Teak. These areas are worked under "the selection-cum-improvement" system with clear felling of 15 acres on gentler slopes or flat portions. In selection-cum-improvement areas, large gaps of 66′ × 66′ are to be planted up with economic species like *Sawar, Kumkum, Khair,* etc. Clear felled patches are to be regenerated artificially with teak and other valuable species like *Sawar, Shisham* and *Tiwas* at an espacement of 6′ × 6′ except *Sawar* for which 9′ × 9′ distance is prescribed.

Teak Pole Working Circle.

This includes the areas holding mixed growth of teak and *injaili* species which have suffered very badly due to illicit cutting, theft, fire, etc. These areas are tackled under improvement fellings with a planting scheme on flatter areas in about one fourth part of the coupe with teak and valuable *injaili* species. A rotation of 100 years has been prescribed for these areas too with a felling cycle of 20 years.

There are plently of privately owned forests which have been ruthlessly exploited and many of the areas have been ruined. In order to restore the potentialities of these areas in time, acquisition of such areas to the extent of 50,000 acres is under progress. Afforestation of such acquired areas has been started.

Other privately owned areas where indiscriminate fellings are noticed, are being brought under the regulation of section 35 of the Indian Forest Act, 1927.

The exploited areas in the reserved forests are afforested either departmentally or on Agri-silvi condition as per availability of labour. In Agri-silvi system, the villagers raise food crops along with plantations of tree species.

Exploitation.

The forest produce is divided into two main classes, major and minor. The chief forest produce is timber. firewood and charcoal. The major portion of these is exported either to Kolhapur or Belgaum

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. FORESTS. Exploitation.

and other areas as local demand is not heavy. The chief minor forest produce are Apta and Temburni leaves, *hirda*, *kaju*, *ambe*, *tamalpatra*, etc.

The major forest produce is derived out of coupes due for working. It is then advertised for sale and sold by tenders or by public auction. The minor forest produce is either farmed out or sold on permits.

The annual income from major forest produce in Sawantwadi Sub-Division in the year 1957-58, was Rs. 1,03,394·24 nP. from timber and Rs. 3,046 from firewood.

The income from minor forest produce in the same year was Rs. 8,549·88 nP.

The total income for the Sub-Division for the same year from all sources was Rs. 1,14,990·12 nP. and the total expenditure was Rs. 93,589·35 nP.

Forest Roads.

There are no roads maintained by the Forest Department in this Sub-Division. The contractors prepare temporary roads and cart tracts during the lease period of the contract.

Relations with People.

Relations with People.—Under the Government of Bombay, Agriculture and Forest Department's Resolution No. 5898, dated 21st September 1953, the people are granted rights and privileges to graze cattle in open forests, to remove dead and fallen wood for domestic consumption, to remove fallen leaves and dead material for burning *rab* and right of way to temples, water springs, etc.

In the application of forest rights and privileges and in the work of forest protection and exploitation, the officials of the Forest department come into direct contact with the people. A direct link between the people and the department has been established by the appointment of a "Forest and Grazing Committee" by the District Development Board. This Board deals with problems connected with forest policy, reafforestation, tree planting, allotment of grazing lands, improvement of grazing lands, etc.

Vana Mahotsava.

Vana Mahotsava.—The Government of India inaugurated in 1950, an important function called *Vana Mahotsava* to be celebrated every year in the first week of July. The object is to convey the importance of forests to the nation and to encourage the planting of as many trees as possible at suitable places. To supply free seedlings to public and other departments for planting during annual *Vana Mahotsava*, nurseries have been established at Sawantwadi, Padwe-Majgaon and Ratnagiri, where seedlings of various ornamental, fast growing trees and economical species are raised.

Wild Life Week.

Wild Life Week.—In order to put a stop to wanton destruction of wild life, the Government of India has started celebrating the Wild Life Week from the year 1956. The week is celebrated during October. The object is to convey to the people the importance of wild life in nature's balance.

THE CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT.

CO-OPERATION. Organisation.

THE CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT IN THE RATNAGIRI DISTRICT is in the administrative charge of the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri, who is a gazetted officer in class II of Maharashtra Co-operative Service. His immediate superior is the Divisional Deputy Registrar, Bombay, who has jurisdiction over Bombay, Thana, Kolaba and Ratnagiri districts. The Assistant Registrar is responsible for supervision of and guidance to various types of co-operative societies in his charge. Many of the powers of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies under the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act (VII of 1925) and the Rules under it are delegated to him. Under him is the District Co-operative Officer, Ratnagiri, who belongs to the subordinate co-operative service. The district co-operative officer is responsible for organisation of societies, development of the movement, supervision over the societies in rural and semi-rural areas, arrangements for crop finance, etc. He is also a nominee of the department on certain types of co-operative institutions. Although his jurisdiction extends over the whole district the co-ordination of departmental activities at the district level is done by the Assistant Registrar, so that, there may be no duplication of work between the Assistant Registrar and the district co-operative officer. Up to 30th June 1956, the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies was also entrusted with the work relating to the cottage and small scale industries and industrial co-operatives in the district. In carrying out these duties he was assisted by a District Officer of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries and also by Industrial Supervisors. Government have however, under Government Resolution, Industries and Co-operative Department, Bombay No. JTM/1957/24225-8, dated 30th March 1957, declared the former Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries Section as a separate department with a view to facilitating an easy and convenient growth of the small-scale and cottage industries. The work of the co-operative societies of industrial type is under the control of the Assistant Director of Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives, Thana and a District Officer for Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives, Ratnagiri who is assisted by supervisors. There is one Assistant Director for Thana, Kolaba and Ratnagiri districts with Thana as his headquarters.

Supervision Staff.

The Supervision Staff.—The supervision staff serves as the last link in the administrative machinery. Their main responsibility is confined to detailed supervision over the working of agricultural credit and multi-purpose societies. They are expected to supervise every society in their charge at least once in three months. They are in addition required to assist the societies in the preparation of normal credit statements and assets registers. At present there are seven supervisors in the district. In national extension service areas the work is entrusted to the assistant district co-operative officers. Supervisors are also appointed in the national extension service areas, by the Deputy Registrar, from among those persons who have

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. CO-OPERATION. Supervision Staff.

undergone training at the Regional Co-operative Training School, and passed the prescribed test. They are under the control of the District Supervision Committee which functions under the direct control of the Provincial Board of Supervision. This committee consists of the Assistant Registrar, the Chairman of Central Financing Agency (formerly representative of Bombay State Co-operative Bank, now of the Ratnagiri District Central Bank), the Chairman of the District Co-operative Board, one or two representatives of the supervising unions in the district and one representative of the agricultural non-credit societies in the district.

The District Co-operative Officer is the secretary of the committee. The committee recommends disciplinary action, where necessary, against supervisors; scrutinises and checks their programmes and diaries; and reviews the working of supervising unions.

Supervising Unions.

Supervising Unions.—A supervising union is formed for every taluka generally, where there is a sufficient number of co-operative societies. Elsewhere there is one supervising union for two talukas. There are eight supervising unions in the district. All agricultural credit societies are eligible for membership. The main functions of the supervising unions are :—(1) to advise, guide, assist, rectify and control its constituent societies by efficient and regular supervision and (2) to provide a means of assessing the credit of each of the constituent societies and to make recommendations in this behalf to the financing agency. The supervisor for the area acts as a secretary of the union.

District Co-operative Board.

The District Co-operative Board.—Education and training in co-operation, and propaganda for the spread of the co-operative movement are carried by the district co-operative board under the guidance of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union (formerly Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute). The membership of the Board is of two classes viz. (1) Ordinary, consisting of all co-operative societies in the district and (2) associate, consisting of individuals. A nominee of the financing agency (formerly the Bombay State Co-operative Bank; now Ratnagiri District Central Co-operative Bank), the assistant registrar, Ratnagiri and the executive officer of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union are ex-officio members of the general body of the board. There is a board of management composed of (1) two nominees of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union; (2) one or two nominees of the financing agency; (3) four representatives of the supervising unions; (4) one or two representatives of the individual members according as their number is 20 or more; (5) one or two members of individual societies; and (6) the administrative officer of the Central Financing Agency. The board of management has also the right to co-opt a co-operator of outstanding merit and experience from the district. The district co-operative board is affiliated as a subscribing member of the Divisional Co-operative Board for Maharashtra and also to the State Co-operative Union.

CHAPTER 16.

Developmental Departments.
CO-OPERATION.
Audit.

Audit.—Section 22 of the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act provides for statutory audit of every society once a year either by the Registrar or by some person authorised by him. The audit staff in the district works under the control of the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri. Besides the special auditor, there are three categories of auditors, viz. (1) auditors, (2) sub-auditors and (3) certified (professional) auditors. The special auditor is an officer belonging to the Co-operative Service, Class II. This Officer is stationed at Thana but has jurisdiction over Thana, Kolaba and Ratnagiri districts. He audits the accounts of (1) central co-operative banks and banking unions; (2) purchase and sale societies and unions; (3) the district industrial association and its branches; (4) 'C' and 'D' class urban banks with working capital exceeding Rs. 50,000; (5) housing societies indebted to Government; and (6) societies in liquidation belonging to the classes of societies in his charge. He also carries out a test audit of three per cent. of the societies audited by certified auditors.

There are two auditors in the district and one additional auditor who is entrusted with the audit work independently under the special auditor. Their head-quarters are at Malvan and Ratnagiri. The head-quarters of the additional auditor is also at Ratnagiri. They audit the following classes of societies—multi-purpose societies and their shops; taluka development boards; weavers' societies; district co-operative board; industrial societies; supervising unions; agricultural-non-credit societies, like crop protection, fencing and joint farming societies; and other societies.

There are five sub-auditors and one additional sub-auditor. They audit all agricultural credit societies and small multi-purpose societies; societies running fair price shops and distribution centres with a turnover not exceeding Rs. 50,000. Every distribution centre or a fair price shop run by societies is treated as a separate unit.

In pursuance of the policy of progressive decentralisation of the movement, in recent years steps have been taken to appoint certified auditors to carry out the statutory audit of the following types of societies and institutions:—

(1) consumers' societies with a turnover of Rs. 50,000 and over;

(2) urban banks and societies classed as 'A' or 'B' with working capital of Rs. 50,000 and over;

(3) housing societies having no outstandings against them on account of Government loan;

(4) Any other societies certified by the Registrar.

Other staff.

Other staff.—An assistant district co-operative officer, a special recovery officer, an honorary organiser and arbitrators are the other officers in the district.

CHAPTER 16.
—
Developmental Departments.
CO-OPERATION.
Other staff.

The assistant district co-operative officer is attached to the office of the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri. He assists the District Co-operative Officer in his duties and inspects minor societies.

Under the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act monies recoverable as a result of arbitration awards or liquidation proceedings and certain dues of co-operative institutions are recoverable through the Collectors according to the law in force for the recovery of arrears of land revenue. When the normal staff of the Revenue Department is not in a position to cope with the work, special recovery officers are deputed from the Revenue Department to the Co-operative Department to expedite the work. A post of a special recovery officer was created in this district in 1957 with headquarters at Ratnagiri.

The honorary organisers are non-officials who give assistance in the matter of organisation of different types of societies. An honorary organiser's jurisdiction extends to one or two talukas or even to the whole district in some cases. There are three district organisers and 13 taluka organisers in the district.

Under the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act, co-operative societies or members thereof may refer their disputes to the Assistant Registrar for decision either by himself or by appointment of an arbitrator. Every year a list of persons is published and Assistant Registrar sends cases of disputes to such arbitrators. There were 18 arbitrators in the district in 1958.

One Statistical Assistant is appointed in the district and he works directly under the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.

Educational Institutions.

Educational Institutions.—The Maharashtra State Co-operative Union is recognised as the sole agency for imparting co-operative training to officials and non-officials throughout the State. It has established regional schools at Poona and Jalgaon with a view to impart training to the lower staff of Co-operative Department and co-operative institutions, in particular, to supervisors, bank inspectors and secretaries of multi-purpose societies and taluka purchase and sale unions. The Union is also conducting a co-operative training college at Poona where higher officers of the Co-operative Department and secretaries of the urban and central banks are trained.

Marketing.

Marketing.—The Registrar of Co-operative Societies is also Director of Agricultural Marketing, and in this capacity he shares with the Collector of the district the responsibilities for the effective enforcement of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act (XXII of 1939). The Director performs the functions of survey; organisation and constitution of regulated markets; assessment of adequate scale of

licence fees; rates of commission, and charges of other market functionaries; approval of bye-laws and annual budgets of market committees; and technical guidance as regards the manner in which the accounts of the market committees shall be maintained. The administrative control of the market committees and the enforcement of statutory provisions and the rules governing the regulation of markets are, however, vested in the Collector, who exercises these powers in consultation with the Director.

The Director is assisted by separate marketing staff, consisting of the Chief Marketing Officer and one Assistant Marketing Officer with their head-quarters at Poona and Assistant Marketing Officers for regional divisions. The Chief Marketing Officer is an officer of Class I State Service and the Assistant Marketing Officers are in Class II. The latter are provided with a staff of Marketing Inspectors whose jurisdiction extends to over one or more districts. There is only one Marketing Inspector for this district with his headquarters at Ratnagiri. He works under the control of the Assistant Marketing Officer, Poona and the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.

There are no regulated markets in this district.

Money-Lending

Money-Lending.—The Bombay Money-Lenders Act (XXXI of 1946) was brought into operation from 17th November, 1947. The salient features embodied in the Act are: (1) licensing of money-lenders; (2) maintenance of accounts by money-lenders in prescribed form; and (3) restrictions on the rate of interest. The Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Maharashtra State is also appointed as Registrar-General of Money-lenders. Up to October 1957, the administration of the Act was under the control of the Revenue department and Personal Assistant to the Collector held the charge of the Registrar for Money-lenders and Mamlatdars held the charge of the Assistant Registrar for money lenders. As per Government Notification No. M.L.A. 1256/11943-C/dated 23rd July 1957 the administration was transferred to the Co-operative department. This district is placed under the charge of the Registrar of Money-lenders, Kolhapur at the divisional level. At the district level is the Assistant Registrar of money--lenders, Ratnagiri and under him is a money-lending inspector. The inspector makes inquiries on the applicaton for money-lending licences and inspects accounts of licence-holders and submits his reports to the Registrar through the Assistant Registrar of Money-Lenders in addition to his regular duties. Every Assistant Registrar maintains a register of money-lenders for the area in his jurisdiction. Money-lenders are licensed to carry on the business of money-lending only in accordance with the terms and conditions issued to them. The authority to grant a licence is the Registrar, although the application for licence has to be made to the Assistant Registrar of the area concerned. The Registrar has also powers to cancel a licence Appeals against the order of the Registrar may be made to the Registrar-General whose decision is final.

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. CO-OPERATION. Sarvodaya Centres.

Sarvodaya Centres.—In 1949, the State Government adopted a scheme known as the 'Sarvodaya' Scheme, with a view to bring about all-round, intensive development—social, educational and economic – of a selected, compact block of 30 to 45 villages in each district through the constructive programme which was foremost in the objectives of Mahatma Gandhi. The executive authority in the formulation and implementation of such a scheme in each district rests with a non-official worker known as the *Sanchalak* of the *Sarvodaya* Centre, who is assisted and advised by a non-official committee of members known as the *Sarvodaya* Area Committee. Every year a plan of development of the area is formulated by the *Sanchalak*, which is considered by the State *Sarvodaya* Committee before its final sanction by Government. In the district, there are two *Sarvodaya* Centres one at Gopuri, in Kankavli peta and another at Lanje in Lanje peta. The centre at Gopuri covers 35 villages in Malvan taluka and Kankavli peta. Three sub-centres are opened at Harkul, Ranged and Karul. A group of workers is attached to each of the sub-centre which conducts various activities of village uplift and social and cultural development in the district. In 1958-59, Government sanctioned about Rs. 35,000 to the *Sarvodaya* Centre, Gopuri.

The centre at Lanje covers 13 villages round about Lanje. Activities similar to other *Sarvodaya* Centres are carried on by this centre. In 1958-59, Government sanctioned about Rs. 20,000 to this centre.

Organisation.

The following statement shows the organisation of the Co-operative Department in Ratnagiri district.

I. *Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies.*
(CLASS II)

	Working directly under—
(1) District Co-operative Officer.	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.
(2) District Supervision Committee (District Co-operative office).	Provincial Board of Supervision.
(3) Supervisors (who are also secretaries of Taluka Supervising Unions.	Divisional Deputy Registrar.
(4) Audit Staff—	
(1) Special Auditor, Co-operative Societies Thana with Auditor and Sub-Auditor (For the audit work of co-operative Societies from Ratnagiri District).	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.

Co-operation.

Organisation.

(2) Two Auditors at Ratnagiri and Malvan.	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.
(3) Six Sub-Auditors ..	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.
(4) Certified Auditors ..	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.
(5) Assistant District Co-operative Officer, Ratnagiri.	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.
(6) Special Recovery Officer. ..	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.
(7) Honorary Organisers ..	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.
(8) Arbitrators (18 in No.) ..	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.
(9) Statistical Assistant ..	Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ratnagiri.

II. *Assistant Marketing Officer (Class II).*

(1) Marketing Inspector ..	Assistant Marketing Officer, Poona.

III. *Registrar of Money Lenders, Kolhapur.*

(1) Assistant Registrar, Money lenders, Ratnagiri.	Registrar of Money-lenders, Kolhapur.
(2) Money-lending Inspector, Ratnagiri.	Assistant Registrar, Money-lenders, Ratnagiri.

IV *Sarvodaya.*

(1) *Sanchalak* (assisted by the State Sarvodaya Committee and Sarvodaya area committee).

THE DEPARTMENT OF COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES.

Organisation.

RATNAGIRI OFFCE IS UNDER THE ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL of the Assistant Director of Cottage Industries and Assistant Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Thana at the sub-divisional level, and under the administrative control of the Deputy Director of Cottage Industries and Deputy Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Bombay Division, Mulund at the divisional level. The Director of Cottage Industries and Additional Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Maharashtra State, Poona, is the head of the Department. The Assistant Director of Cottage Industries and Assistant Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Thana, has general powers of supervision over :

(1) Demonstration parties and peripatetic schools,

(2) Industrial co-operative societies, and

(3) Survey work in connection with industrial co-operatives, and village industries.

CHAPTER 16.
—
Developmental Departments.
COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES.
Organisation.

He has general control over the staff in the district pertaining to the cottage industries and industrial co-operatives. He entertains and scrutinises applications for loans from individual artisans, educated unemployed, backward class persons and co-operative societies, and forwards them to the Deputy Director concerned or Director of Cottage Industries as the case may be. He also sees that agreements in connection with the loans sanctioned are properly executed, after which the loans are disbursed by him. He endeavours to introduce improved implements and improved methods of production in village and cottage industries and communicates to the Small Industries Research Institute at Poona the problems requiring research in regard to such implements and methods. He has to maintain contact with associations of artisans or with individual artisans in the district who have distinguished themselves in their respective industries, make a continuous study of the needs of the different cottage and village industries, and try to revive decaying and extinct industries, particularly through utilisation of locally available raw materials. It is partly his duty to prepare schemes for the development of industrial co-operatives and village industries. The District Officer for Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives, Ratnagiri, is the head of the office for the district. He is mainly responsible for organisation and promotion of industrial co-operatives and supervises and controls the industrial co-operative societies, Government training schools and production centres, Government individual loans administered under various schemes, Government loans to co-operative societies and their recoveries, revival of decayed cottage industries, propaganda for introduction of improved tools and equipments, preparation of schemes for the development of cottage industries, etc., with the help of the staff as under:

(i) Industrial Supervisor (One) (II Grade).
(ii) Industrial Supervisors (Two) (III Grade).
(iii) Senior Clerk (One).

Industrial Co-operative Societies.

There were in all 43 industrial co-operative societies as on 30th June, 1958. The general working of the societies may be seen from the figures given below:

Serial No.	Particulars.	Amounts.	Number.
1	2	3	4
		Rs.	
1	Industrial Co-operative Societies	....	43
2	Number of Members	....	2,025
3	Collected share capital	87,030	....
4	Reserve and other funds	20,187	....
5	Deposits	66,435	....
6	Government loan	17,687	....
7	Bank loan	8,347	....
8	Working Capital	1,99,686	....
9	Profit	8,509	....
10	Loss	1,713	....

Industrial Training Schools.

There are in all seven training schools and two production centres. The details are as under :—

Serial No. 1	Name of the School 2	Location. 3	Admission. 4	No. of students trained. 5	Remarks. 6
1	Coir Extraction and Spinning School, Vengurla.	Vengurla	20	313	The school is working satisfactorily.
2	Coir Extraction and Spinning School, Kochara.	Kochara ..	20	259	The school is working satisfactorily.
3	Coir Extraction and Spinning School, Dhampur.	Dhampur	20	180	The school is working satisfactorily.

The students are instructed in theory and are given practicals. Each student is paid Rs. 20 per month as stipend subject to good attendance and good behaviour. An Assistant Instructor is appointed over each institution. The duration of the course is of three months only.

Technical Experts.

The technical experts employed by this department, having their headquarters outside the district, are available for consultation and advice to the artisans of the district during their periodical tours.

Sann-hemp Industry.

Serial No. 1	Name of the School. 2	Location. 3	Admission. 4	No. of students trained. 5	Remarks. 6
1	Government Fibre Training Unit, Rajapur.	Rajapur ..	15	27	The school is working satisfactorily.
2	Fibre Works School, Deogad.	Deogad ..	15	63	The school is working satisfactorily.

The course of the training is of one year. Each student gets Rs. 25 per month as stipend. The Instructor and Assistant Instructor are appointed over each school and impart lessons as per syllabus laid down by the department.

Serial No. 1	Name of the School. 2	Location 3	Admission 4	No. of students trained 5	Remarks. 6
1	Coir works school, Malgund	Malgund ..	12	84	Working satisfactorily.
2	Coir Works School, Malvan.	Malvan ..	15	63	Working satisfactorily.

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES.

It is a course of one year. The students are paid Rs. 20 and Rs. 25 as stipend for the rural and urban location respectively. The Instructor and Assistant Instructor instruct the students as per syllabus laid down.

Production Centres.

There are two production centres in the district. Production Centre at Ratnagiri deals in hosiery industry. It has two sections (1) training section and (2) production section. Fifteen students are admitted per term for a period of six months. Each is granted a stipend of Rs. 25 per month. After completion of the training the trained workers are taken up on production wing and are given work on piece work basis and paid wages as per scheduled rate approved by the Director of Cottage Industries and Additional Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Maharashtra State, Poona. The staff consists of the foreman instructor, storekeeper-*cum*-accountant, skilled worker and a peon. The other production centre is at Aronda, taluka Sawantwadi. The trained workers are admitted in the workshop on piece work basis and are paid wages at settled rates. There is no training section attached to the centre. The centre is well equipped with tools, equipments and improved machinery. The staff consists of a foreman, a junior clerk and a watchman-*cum*-peon. The production centre meets the demand of the public as well as Government as per orders.

Technical Experts.

The technical officers with headquarters at Poona under various industries are available for consultation, advice and guidance to these institutions during their periodical tours.

Coir Extraction and Spinning Institution and Factory at Vengurla.— A scheme for the development of coir industry has been prepared and budget provision for Rs. 51,900 during the current year is also made. Government orders sanctioning the continuance of the scheme have been received under Government Resolution, Industries and Co-operation Department, No. CIP-2829/25176-In Co.-I dated 26th February 1959 and the scheme is being implemented. The factory provides employment to skilled and un-skilled workers on daily wage basis.

Work of National Extension Service Blocks.

There are in all six National Extension Service Blocks working in this district. Out of these six National Extension Service Blocks, Mandangad Block is of 2nd stage and the remaining are all 1st stage Blocks. A meeting of all Block Development Officers was called in 1959, to chalk out schemes under Rural Arts and Crafts Industries. The cottage industries scheme formulated by the Block-Development Officers are approved and they are being implemented by them in Block areas.

Khadi and Village Industries.

Besides the above mentioned activities, the Village Industries Branch, Ratnagiri has undertaken various activities in the district such as soap making, oil extraction, leather and tanning development, *Saranjam Karyalaya, Ambar Charkha*, etc. The Village Industry

Committee in the district grants working capital and loan for the purchase of improved tools and equipment and also makes advances towards the contribution of share capital of the co-operative societies.

Co-ordination with Small-Scale Industries.

Co-ordination with Small-Scale Industries.—A Co-ordination Committee consisting of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Director of Industries and the Joint Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries, one representative of the Village Industries Committee and one representative of the Provincial Industrial Co-operative Association has been set up to co-ordinate the interests of cottage and village industries on the one hand and Small-Scale Industries on the other.

THE DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES.

INDUSTRIES.
Organisation.

THE WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES is mainly confined to the development of small-scale and large-scale industries in the State. The work connected with development of fisheries was transferred to the Director of Fisheries, Bombay, in April 1945 and that in connection with development of cottage industries was transferred in December 1946 to the Joint Registrar of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries, Poona. Its control over technical education and the various schemes related to it was transferred in June 1948 to the Director of Technical Education, Bombay.

The officer directly in charge of small-scale and large-scale industries in the Ratnagiri district is the Deputy Director of Industries, Bombay Region [Class-I Maharashtra Industries Service (State)] who has his headquarters at Bombay, and whose jurisdiction also extends to the districts of Jalgaon, Dhulia, Nasik, Thana, Kolaba and Greater Bombay. He works directly under the Director of Industries, Maharashtra State. He is also in charge of work connected with the administration of the Bombay Weights and Measures Act XV of 1932, the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act (LXIX of 1958) and the Industrial Statistics Act (XIX of 1942). Under the former two Acts, his functions relate to enforcement of the Weights and Measures Act, collection of revenue in the form of fees for verification and/or re-verification and stamping of weights and measures, etc. and sanctioning prosecutions for breaches of the Acts in his region. He is also authorised to grant registration to repairers of and dealers in weights and measures, weighing and measuring instruments, etc. or the applicants complying with the requirements, under intimation to the Director of Industries. Under the Industrial Statistics Act, he is responsible for collection of industrial statistics in the prescribed form from the registered factories covered by the Census of Manufacturers in the district. He is required to render all possible assistance to the occupiers of factories with a view to obtaining statistical returns, complete in all respects, in good time. He also collects industrial and commercial information on a voluntary basis as and when required either by the State or the Union Government. He also undertakes investigations in connection

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. INDUSTRIES. Organisation.

with cases of trade disputes with parties in the district referred to by Indian embassies abroad or foreign embassies in India. Cases of breaches of the provisions of the Trade Marks Act (V of 1940), Indian Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889) or Emblems and Names (Prevention of Improper Use) Act (XII of 1950), are also investigated by him. In addition, he is empowered to sanction loans under the State-Aid to Industries Rules to the limit of Rs. 1,000 in each case, to applicants in his jurisdiction, subject to the condition that the total amount sanctioned by him does not exceed Rs. 5,000 in any one year. His miscellaneous duties extend to investigation of applications (made for industrial purposes) from parties in his area for a licence under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, for requirements of power, water, land acquisition, erection of buildings and for essentiality certificates in connection with the import, export and purchase of controlled materials such as iron and steel, cement, etc.

The Deputy Director of Industries is assisted by the Assistant Director of Industries who is a class I officer. Their jurisdiction extends over the entire region. The Industries Officer (Class II, Maharashtra Industries Service) is in charge of the sub-divisional office at Thana. Ratnagiri district comes within the jurisdiction of the Industries Officer, Thana. In addition, he is assisted by three Industries Inspectors and three manual assistants stationed in Ratnagiri District, as given below :—

(1) Northern Division—Chiplun.

(2) Central Division—Ratnagiri.

(3) Southern Division—Malvan.

The duties assigned to the former inspectors of weights and measures under the Bombay Weights and Measures Rules are now carried out by the industries inspectors. The main purpose of the Bombay Weights and Measures Act is to provide for the adoption and compulsory use of standard weights and measures in the State. No weight or measure or weighing or measuring instrument may be sold, delivered or used for trade, unless it has been verified or re-verified in the manner prescribed by Rules made under the Act and stamped by an inspector with a stamp of verification. Fees are fixed for verification, stamping, etc. It is the duty of the inspectors to carry out the verification and stamping and collect the fees.

The Standards of Weights and Measures Act, 1956, has established the Standard Weights and Measures based on the Metric System in India. The change over to the Metric System will however be gradual, spread over ten years. The then Government of Bombay enacted the complementary legislation, *viz.* the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958, for the enforcement of the standard weights and measures, based on the Metric System in the State. Rules under the Act, *viz.*, Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Rules, 1958, have also been framed by the Government.

CHAPTER 16.

Developmental Departments.

INDUSTRIES.

Organisation.

It has initially been decided by the Government that the provisions of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958, so far as they relate to weights only, should come into force in certain specified areas of the State, from 1st October, 1958.

So far as Ratnagiri district is concerned, the Act, has not been enforced at any place for the present. It will, however, be made applicable to the whole of Ratnagiri district gradually along with other parts of the State.

Industries Inspectors have also to carry out duties in connection with collection of statistics, statutory as well as voluntary. The statutory collection of statistics under the Industrial Statistics Act, 1942, was started from the year 1946. The scope of the census conducted thereunder was limited to some 29 industries employing 20 or more workers and using power. The Collection of Statistics Act, 1953, came into force in November 1956, repealing the Industrial Statistics Act, 1942. As final arrangements for implementation of Collection of Statistics Act are not yet finalised by the Government of India, the census, at present, is being conducted as hitherto but on voluntary basis

Occupiers of the factories amenable to the census of manufacturing industries are required to submit statistical returns, every year, in the prescribed forms, and Inspectors have to ensure that proper accounts and registers are maintained by them for this purpose. They are also required to render reasonable assistance in completing the returns in good time.

In addition to the census of manufacturing industries, *ad hoc* surveys of different industries are undertaken by the department for which special questionnaires are devised. Inspectors are required to approach the occupiers for getting them filled in properly with necessary information.

THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT*

PUBLIC WORKS

THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT DEALS with (1) Roads and Buildings; (2) Irrigation; (3) Electricity; (4) Ports; (5) Public Health and (6) Parks and Gardens. All these divisions except Parks and Gardens are under the control of respective divisional offices of the Department in the Ratnagiri district where the structure of Public Works Department Organisation is as follows :—

Organisation.

For administrative purposes the Roads and Buildings Branch in the district is placed in charge of the Superintending Engineer, Bombay Circle, Bombay. The Ratnagiri Division is divided into four permanent and two temporary sub-divisions, viz. (1) Ratnagiri Sub-Division, Ratnagiri, (2) Chiplun Sub-Division, Chiplun, (3) Kankavli Sub-Division, Kankavli, (4) Sawantwadi Sub-Division, Sawantwadi, (5) Post-War Construction Division, Khed and (6) Ratnagiri Minor Irrigation Project Sub-Division, Ratnagiri.

*The Public Works Department is now split up into two separate Departments viz., Buildings and Communications Department and Irrigation and Power Department with effect from 1st May, 1960.

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. PUBLIC WORKS. Irrigation.

There are only a few minor irrigation works built by Public Works department in the district. They are in charge of the Revenue department and are enumerated below :—

(1) Dhampur Tank	..	Taluka Malvan.
(2) Pendur Tank	..	do.
(3) Warad Tank	..	do.
(4) Talegaon Tank	..	do.
(5) Padvewadi Tank	..	do.
(6) Pat Tank	..	Peta Kudal.
(7) Ghatke Tank	..	do.
(8) Bar Tank	..	do.
(9) Gisha Devi Tank	..	do.
(10) Chedvan Tank	..	do.
(11) Tole Thikan Tank	.	do.
(12) Humarmala Tank	..	do.
(13) Pawashi Tank	..	do.
(14) Tulsali Tank	..	do.
(15) Sarambal Tank	..	do.
(16) Zarap Tank.	..	do.
(17) Bambali Tank	..	do.
(18) Nana Shende Tank	..	Peta Vengurla.
(19) Matond Tank	..	do.
(20) Asolipal Tank	.	do.
(21) Parabwadi Tank	..	do.
(22) Bandhara at Takwadi	..	do.
(23) Talas Tank	..	do.
(24) Madura Bandhara	..	Taluka Sawantwadi.
(25) Bandhara at Lavel	..	Taluka Khed.

Duties of Officers. While each circle is in charge of a Superintending Engineer, the divisions are in charge of the Executive Engineers and the Sub-Divisions in charge of Assistant Engineers or Deputy Engineers. The Assistant Engineers belong to Maharashtra Service of Engineers (M.S.E.) Class I and Deputy Engineers to Maharashtra Service of Engineers (M.S.E.) Class II. These officers being in charge of Sub-Divisions are called Sub-Divisional Officers. The Sub-Divisions are further divided into sections, each in charge of an overseer. There are about 20 overseers in each division.

Superintending Engineer. The Superintending Engineer is responsible for the administration and general control of public works in charge of officers of the Department within his circle. It is his duty to inspect the state

Superintending Engineer.

of various works within his Circle and to verify that the system of management prevailing is efficient and economical. He is required to ascertain the efficiency of the subordinate officers and petty establishments and to see and report whether the staff employed in each division is actually necessary or adequate for the management. He also examines the conditions of the surveying and mathematical instruments at the headquarters of divisions. In case of office and petty establishments borne on divisional scales, he sees that these scales are not exceeded without proper authority. The Superintending Engineer is empowered to transfer and post Deputy Engineers and overseers within his Circle. In the interest of administration, however, Executive Engineers of Divisions are consulted before posting these officers to particular Sub-Divisional charges under their control. It is also the duty of the Superintending Engineer to recommend removals and transfers of Executive Engineers from their own divisions. The supervision and control of assessment of revenue from irrigation works within his circle rests with the Superintending Engineer. The Superintending Engineer is authorised to correspond directly with any of the local authorities, civil or military within his Circle.

Executive Engineers

The Executive Engineer is responsible to the Superintending Engineer of his Circle for the execution and management of all works within his division. He has to see that proper measures are taken to preserve all buildings and works in his division and to prevent encroachment on Government lands in his Charge. He is responsible to see that the surveying and mathematical instruments in his division are properly maintained and to report on their condition to the Superintending Engineer at the end of each working season. In addition to his other duties, he is the *ex-officio* professional adviser to all the State Government offices situated within the limits of his charge, on all technical matters

Sub-Divisional Officers.

Sub-Divisional Officers are responsible to the Executive Engineer in charge of the division for the management and execution of works within their sub-divisions.

Overseers.

The overseers are in charge of sections under the sub-divisional officers.

Roads.

The activities of the Public Works department in regard to roads and buildings and irrigation relate to construction, repairs and maintenance of roads, Government buildings and irrigation works financed by Government and placed in charge of the department. In Ratnagiri district as on 31st March 1958, the department maintained 541·16 miles of metalled roads and 191·01 miles of unmetalled roads.

In addition to funds from the general revenues of the State allocated for expenditure on roads, there are three other funds maintained for the construction, repairs and maintenance of roads viz. (1) the

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. PUBLIC WORKS. Roads.

Central Road Fund, (2) the State Road Fund and (3) the Maharashtra State Development Fund. The Government of India is in charge of the Central Fund, and allocates amounts from the fund for communication works. Expenditure on roads in the district is incurred from all these funds.

Electrical Circle.

For carrying out electrical installation and inspection works there is the Electrical Circle under the Electrical Engineer to Government. The jurisdiction of this officer extends over the whole of the State. Under him there are three Electrical Divisions, each in charge of an Executive Engineer having headquarters at Bombay, Poona and Nagpur respectively. The Electrical installation works in Jalgaon, Satara and Ratnagiri divisions are looked after by the Poona Electrical Division.

The Executive Engineer has to do duties relating to electrical installations in Government Buildings such as execution of original works, carrying out special repairs and maintenance of those works. He is also Electrical Inspector under the Indian Electricity Act (XI of 1910) and carries out inspection of medium pressure and high tension electrical installations, power houses, mills, cinemas, etc.

Ports Administration.

Twenty-eight minor ports and one intermediate port are grouped under Group (10) with headquarters at Ratnagiri which is an intermediate port. The Assistant Port Officer and Deputy Engineer (Civil) are in charge of these ports. Some of the ports situated in this district namely Vijayadurg, Deogad, Ratnagiri, Malvan, Vengurla, etc., are being developed by carrying out the dredging of the navigational channel and also by providing landing facilities by constructing passenger as well as cargo jetties. Facilities to passengers are also being extended by constructing waiting rooms, passenger sheds, public latrines, etc. and also by making water supply arrangements.

Public Health Circle.

For convenience of administration, the public health schemes in Ratnagiri district are entrusted to the Public Health Works Division, Kolhapur which is under the jurisdiction of the Southern Public Health Circle, Poona. This division established in 1948, has its headquarters at Kolhapur with jurisdiction over the revenue districts of Ratnagiri, Kolhapur, Sholapur, Sangli and five talukas of Satara district, viz., Man, Khatav, Jaoli, Patan and Karad. This division is further divided into five sub-divisions each in charge of a Deputy Engineer (called Sub-Divisional Officer). The five sub-divisions are: (i) Kolhapur Water Supply Sub-Division, Kolhapur, (ii) Miraj Sanitary Sub-Division, Miraj; (iii) Sangli Sanitary Sub-Division; Sangli; (iv) Sholapur Sanitary Sub-Division, Sholapur; and (v) Ratnagiri Sanitary Sub-Division, Ratnagiri. The Deputy Engineer has generally about four to five overseers under him and a standard sub-divisional staff.

The public health works in the Ratnagiri district are looked after by the sub-divisional officer, Ratnagiri Sanitary Sub-Division, Ratnagiri.

The major public health schemes in the district are prepared by the Executive Engineer, Public Health Project Division, Poona.

In the Ratnagiri district, the following towns are provided as on 1st April, 1958, with protected piped water supply system :—

Town	Population.
(1) Ratnagiri ..	27,082
(2) Chiplun ..	15,847
(3) Khed ..	6,477
(4) Sawantwadi ..	12,451
(5) Rajapur ..	8,023

Water works at Sawantwadi is owned and managed by Government. The works at other towns are owned and managed by the local bodies concerned.

The following public health schemes were in progress in the district on 1st April 1958 : —

Scheme.	Population.	Cost (Rs.)
(1) Improvement to Ratnagiri Water Supply.	27,082	24,68,000
(2) Khed Water Supply ..	6,477	3,70,000
(3) Dhaman Devi Water Supply.	1,203	21,478

The following Public Health Schemes in the district were ready as on 1st April 1958 for execution and they will be taken up as soon as funds are available :—

Scheme.	Population.	Cost (Rs.)
(1) Veshwi Water Supply ..	2,529	22,437
(2) Gimvi Water Supply .	800	55,750
(3) Kondivare Water Supply ..	964	1,13,317

In addition the following Schemes are under preparation which are likely to be started during the Third Five-Year Plan, if and when funds are made available :-

Scheme.	Population.	Cost (Rs.)
(1) Sangameshwar Water Supply.	3,494	2,20,000
(2) Improvements to Chiplun Water Supply.	15,847	9,90,200
(3) Guhagar Water Supply.. ..	5,301	2,78.423
(4) Improvements to Rajapur Water Supply.	8,023	4,81,380
(5) Harnai Water Supply ..	6,889	4,15,000

CHAPTER 16.

Developmental Departments.

PUBLIC WORKS.

Public Health Schemes.

Scheme.		Population.	Cost (Rs.)
(6) Dapoli Water Supply	..	3,958	2,40,000
(7) Kadwai Water Supply	..	3,958	2,40,000
(8) Nardane Water Supply	..	3,439	2,30,000

Besides the above Schemes, this department has undertaken investigations of public health schemes in other towns and villages in the district with a view to starting the works during the Third Five-Year Plan.

Parks and Gardens.

This organisation is in charge of the Superintendent of Parks and Gardens, Bombay, having State-wide jurisdiction in respect of the management of general and national parks and gardens in the State. It is under the control of the Public Works department in all respects except in the case of national parks. So far as National Parks are concerned, it is under the control of the Agriculture and Forest department. In Ratnagiri district there are no notable activities of this organisation and hence there is no separate set up for this organisation in the district.

MAHARASHTRA STATE ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION.

ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION.

Nationalisation of passenger transport was decided upon by the State Government in August 1947 and operations were started departmentally in June 1948, the administration of which was subsequently handed over to a statutory corporation in December 1949, under the provisions of the Road Transport Corporation Act (XXXII of 1948). Since then the Corporation has been reconstituted under the Road Transport Corporation Act, LXIV of 1950.

For administrative convenience of operations the entire State was originally divided into 16 viable units (now eight, after the transfer of three units to Mysore on account of States Reorganisation in 1956 and five units to Gujarat after the break up of the bilingual Bombay State in May, 1960) called divisions. The officer-in-charge of each division is called the Divisional Controller who is a Class I officer. The Divisional Controller is immediately under the control of the Central Office of which the General Manager is the administrative head assisted by the following departments and branches viz., (1) Administration, (2) Traffic, (3) Mechanical Engineering, (4) Accounts and Audit, (5) Statistics, (6) Security, (7) Stores, (8) Civil Engineering, (9) Secretariat, (10) Legal and (11) Central Workshops.

Organisation.

Nationalisation of transport services in Ratnagiri division was started in November, 1949, with headquarters at Mahad which in April 1950, was transferred to Ratnagiri. The Divisional Controller, Ratnagiri Division, is the head of the Division and is responsible for the operations. He is assisted by seven Class II officers, who have the following functional responsibilities.

CHAPTER 16. — Developmental Departments. ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION. Organisation.

The Divisional Traffic Officer is in charge of all matters related to traffic and operations.

The Labour Officer looks after all matters relating to labour relations with the administration, welfare and publicity in the division.

Accounts and Statistics branches are manned by two officers, the Divisional Auditor and the Divisional Statistician.

The Workshop is looked after by the Divisional Engineer with the assistance of a Divisional Works Superintendent. Besides, there are as many Depot Managers as there are depots who are wholly responsible for the working of the depots. One of them is a Depot Superintendent in charge of a main depot.

Extent of Operation.

The operations started in November 1949, with 75 buses plying on seven routes. By 31st May 1958, the operations were spread over practically the whole of the district, the division having a fleet of 165 buses plying on 133 routes. The buses put on road have, on an average, a seating capacity of 37·3, exclusive of the seats for the driver and the conductor. The average daily mileage operated by these buses during May, 1958, was 14,803, carrying on an average 25,541, passengers per day.

Statistics.

The Division also held a fleet of 37 trucks on 31st May, 1958. These trucks operated as public carriers on contract basis, on terms prescribed by the Corporation.

Workshops and Depots.

The light and heavy repairs of the buses and trucks are carried out at the Divisional Workshop, which is situated at Ratnagiri. Further. after the operation of every 12,000 miles the vehicles are routed by the depots to the Divisional Workshop for preventive maintenance and docking. In addition a maintenance and running repairs workshop is situated at each depot. These are located at Ratnagiri (28), Deorukh (13), Chiplun (22), Dapoli (19), Sawantwadi (41), Malvan (21), Deogad (15), and Vijayadurg (6). The number of vehicles attached to each depot is given in brackets. Regular daily and weekly servicing and 3,000 miles docking for maintenance are carried out in these depots.

Amenities.

For the convenience of the travelling public the Corporation has been providing a number of amenities. So far, bus stations and bus stands have been erected at Harnai, Dapoli, Khed, Chiplun, Guhaghar, Makhjan, Sangameshwar, Deorukh, Ratnagiri, Pali, Sakharpa, Lanje, Rajapur. Banda. Vijayadurg, Shiroda, Deogad, Naudgaon, Phonda, Kankavli, Malvan, Kudal, Amboli, Sawantwadi and Vengurla. Waiting rooms have also been provided at Chiplun, Ratnagiri, and Sawantwadi. Sheds for passengers have been provided at 48 places in the division. Canteens have also been

CHAPTER 16.
—
Developmental Departments.
ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION.
Amenities.

provided at the bus stations at Dapoli, Khed, Chiplun, Sangameshwar, Ratnagiri, Lanje, Deogad, Phonda, Kankavli, Malvan, Amboli and Sawantwadi.

The Corporation also provides welfare facilities to its employees. A Labour Welfare Centre has been opened at Ratnagiri. Canteens for the workers are provided at Dapoli, Khed, Chiplun, Sangameshwar, Ratnagiri, Lanje, Deogad, Phonda, Kankavli, Malvan, Amboli and Sawantwadi and Rest Rooms at Chiplun, Ratnagiri, Deogad, Phonda and Malvan. Facilities for sports, recreation and medical attention have also been provided. Sixty double room tenements have been constructed under the subsidised industrial housing scheme for the workshop staff coming under the Factory Act.

FISHERIES DEPARTMENT.

FISHERIES.
Organisation.

THE FISHERIES OFFICE AT RATNAGIRI is perhaps the oldest district office of the Fisheries Department. This office was started in 1936 when the administration of Government fish curing yards in Ratnagiri and Karwar districts was transferred to the Fisheries Department by the then Customs and Salt Department.

Superintendent of Fisheries (Coast), Ratnagiri, is entrusted with the supervision of all fisheries activities and execution of fishery schemes in the district.

Staff in the sub-offices is divided into (1) of fish curing yards and (2) of Government fisheries schools. In January, 1959, there were 21 fish curing yards employing 41 persons and four fisheries schools employing 43 persons in the district. Each yard is managed by a yard officer or a petty yard officer. Each school is manned by a headmaster, craft instructor, assistant teachers and necessary establishment. Besides, 13 persons were employed in the Marine Biological Research Station at Ratnagiri. The total of fishery personnel numbered 112 in January 1959.

Duties of the Superintendent.

Duties of the Superintendent of Fisheries are as under :—

(1) Co-ordination and supervision of all fishery activities in the district.

(2) Inspection and administration of fish curing yards.

(3) Inspection and administration of Government fisheries schools.

(4) Formation and supervision of the fisheries co-operative societies.

(5) To investigate applications from fishermen for loan and other financial assistance from Government.

(6) To watch and effect loan recoveries.

(7) To explain the various fishery schemes to the fishermen and to encourage them to take advantage of the same.

(8) To collect statistics of fish, fishermen and their gear.

(9) To serve as member of the District Development Board and its sub-committees.

(10) To work as department's representative on the Board of Directors of Fisheries Co-operative Societies.

(11) Survey of new sheets of fresh water to ascertain their suitability for fish culture.

(12) Stocking of tanks with suitable varieties of fish.

Developmental Schemes.

With a view to improving the socio-economic condition of the fishermen and to augment the fish supply, several developmental schemes are introduced by the Fisheries Department. The fisheries developmental schemes introduced by the department can be divided into three sections viz. (a) Konkan *Vikas* Programme; (b) general administration of the district; (c) fisheries research. This has necessitated appointments of three independent officers viz., (1) Assistant Director of Fisheries (Off-shore) in charge of Konkan *Vikas* Programme; (2) Superintendent of Fisheries in charge of general administration; and (3) Curator, Marine Biological Research Station in charge of fisheries research.

(G.C.P.) L-B Vf 4174—42a

CHAPTER 17–WELFARE DEPARTMENTS.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

THE EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS IN THE DISTRICT are in keeping with the general educational pattern in the country. The gradual increase in the number of literates from 52, 325 in 1911 to 2,79,233 in 1951, is a sufficient testimony to the fact that in the recent past, conscious effort, was being made by the State Government and some voluntary organisations for the spread of literacy and education. The percentage of literates to the total population came to 17·70 in 1957-58. However, as compared to some other districts of the State, Ratnagiri district has a comparatively smaller number of educational institutions. There were in 1957-58, the following educational institutions in the district: one for higher education, (*viz.*, Gogate College for Arts and Science, Ratnagiri), 56 for secondary education, 2,479 for primary education and 640 other educational institutions. The students have, therefore, to migrate to other districts for specialised education in other fields. The following figures give an idea of the level of literacy and education of the people of the district :—

Total Literates	2,79,233
Middle School	17,556
Matriculates or S.L.C.	4,469
Intermediate in Arts or Science ..	270
Graduates	456
Post-Graduates	37
Teaching	881
Engineering	85
Agriculture	12
Veterinary	2
Commerce	35
Legal	163
Medical	181
Others	171

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments. EDUCATION. Organisation

Primary and Secondary Education in Ratnagiri District is under the control of the district Educational Inspector. This officer belongs to Class I of the Maharashtra Educational Service and is directly under the control of the Director of Education. He is responsible in his district for—

(*i*) the supervision of primary education;

(*ii*) the administrative control of all Government primary schools, secondary schools and training institutions under the control of the Education department; and

(*iii*) the control and inspection of all secondary schools including English teaching schools, vocational high schools (i.e. agricultural, commercial and technical high schools), training institutions of primary teachers, and such special schools as are under the control of the Education Department.

As regards girls' schools and institutions for women, the Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Poona (M.E.S., Class 1), performs the functions and duties of the District Educational Inspector in respect of—

(*a*) the inspection of girls' secondary and special schools in the district,

(*b*) visiting girls' primary schools in the district and making suggestions for improvement.

In carrying out his duties of inspection and control, the Educational Inspector is assisted by an inspecting staff consisting of one Deputy Educational Inspectors (M.E.S., Class II) and 44 Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors (M.E.S., Class III) who are directly responsible to him for the supervision and inspection of primary schools in the district under section 48 of the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947).

There are separate Inspectors, directly under the Director of Education and having jurisdiction over the whole State, for physical education, visual education, drawing and craft work and commercial schools, who are responsible for organisation and inspection in their respective spheres.

The Deputy Educational Inspector, Ratnagiri, is the chief Government inspecting officer of the district so far as primary schools are concerned. Under the rules framed under the Bombay Primary Education Act, he decides the question of recognition of private primary schools. He has to keep close touch with the working of primary schools maintained or approved by school boards, adult education classes and village libraries. He has to report regarding the housing arrangement, equipment, staff, efficiency of instruction etc., of the primary schools so that the department may be in a position to determine whether the school board is conducting its schools satisfactorily. All schools aided by Government are inspected

by him or by the inspecting staff under him. He also assists the Educational Inspector in the inspection of secondary schools and reports on any specific points about them whenever he is required to do so by the Educational Inspector.

Primary Education. District School Board.

PRIMARY EDUCATION: It is the declared policy of Government that universal, free and compulsory primary education should be reached by a definite programme of progressive expansion, and, under the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947), the State Government has undertaken the duty of securing the development and expansion of primary education in the State. The object aimed at is to have a minimum course of seven years' education for every child. The agencies employed for discharging this duty are the district school boards and authorised municipalities. In Ratnagiri district the District School Board is entrusted with this work.

Working of Primary Education Act.

Under the Primary Education Act and the Rules thereunder, all the district school boards and authorised municipalities have to maintain an adequate number of primary schools in which instruction is given through the medium of the local regional language. For children whose mother-tongue is other than the regional language of the area, school boards have been instructed to open schools in their language if the number of such children is not less than 40 in the first four standards and 20 in the upper standards. The teaching of the regional language of the area is also compulsory in such schools from standard III onwards. An authorised municipality has to make such provision in its budget as will enable approved schools in its area to receive grants at the rates authorised by Government. Responsibility is laid on the District School Board and the school boards of the authorised municipalities to maintain a schedule of staff of Assistant Administrative Officers or Supervisors, primary teachers, clerks, inferior servants and other staff, sanctioned by Government, setting forth the designation, grades, pay and nature or appointment of different members. The members of this staff are servants of the schools board concerned and receive their pay, allowances, etc., from the Primary Education Fund maintained by the school boards. No change or alteration can be made in the schedule of staff without the previous sanction of Government.

The annual budgets of the school boards have to be submitted to the Director of Education for sanction. The District School Board derives its income mainly from Government grants, which form nearly 96 per cent. of its total income. It also receives from the District Local Board a contribution equal to such portion of its income from the cess on land revenue and water rates as may be fixed by Government from time to time, and from non-authorised municipalities whose schools are under its control, such proportion of the rateable value of properties in the area of the respective municipalities as may be fixed by Government from time to time. The District Local Board, Ratnagiri, has, under the present rules, to contribute 15 pies of the three anna cess on land revenue and

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. EDUCATION.

water rates that it is allowed to levy. The amount to be paid by non-authorised municipalities has been fixed by Government as 5 per cent. of the rateable value of properties in their respective areas.

Primary. Education.

The Chief Executive Officer of the Ratnagiri District School Board is its Administrative Officer. This officer is appointed and paid by the State Government. Under the Administrative Officer are Assistant Administrative Officers or Supervisors, primary school teachers, clerks and other staff under the employ of the District School Board. The Administrative Officer is responsible for the general administration of all primary schools maintained by the school board. He is responsible for carrying out the suggestions made from time to time by Government officers. It is his duty to advise the school board on all matters connected with primary education. He is also a member and secretary of the Staff Selection Committee. This is a committee composed, besides himself, of the chairman of the school board and the Educational Inspector of the district. Its duty is to select candidates for appointment as Assistant Administrative Officers or Supervisors and teachers. The committee selects also the teachers to be deputed for training. The District School Board, or its Administrative Officer has to make appointments of candidates in accordance with the directions given by the committee. The selection of candidates and teachers is made in accordance with the instructions issued by the Government. The Administrative Officer has power, subject to the general instructions issued by the Director of Education, to promote, transfer and take all disciplinary action, including removal or dismissal, against the staff. His orders, however, are subject to appeal to a tribunal consisting of the chairman of the school board and the Educational Inspector, of the district. A primary school teacher who was a guaranteed teacher on the date the Primary Education Act came into force has, however, a right of further appeal to the State Government against any order of his removal or dismissal.

Statistics. (1957-58).

Statistics.—There were 2,479 primary schools (both lower primary, i.e., teaching standards I-IV and upper primary, i.e., teaching standards V-VII) of which 22 were exclusively for girls. The distribution of the schools by managment was as follows :—

Government and Government-aided	4
District School Board	2,271
Schools aided by—	
District School Board	203
Schools unaided	1
Total ..	2,479

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

EDUCATION.

Primary Education.

There were 1,17,090 boys and 82,305 girls in the lower primary stage (i.e., standards I-IV) and 30,044 boys and 9,613 girls in the upper primary stage (ie., standards V-VII) or a total of 2,39,052 pupils in all primary schools. The percentage of school-going children to the population was 15·3.

The number of teachers in primary schools was 6,089 of whom 5,184 were men and 905 women. This works out roughly at 39 pupils per teacher. Only 2,008 of the men-teachers and 433 of the women teachers were trained.

There were four training institutions, three for men (1 Government and 2 non-Government) and one for women.

There were four practising schools, one private and three conducted by the District School Board. They were attached to the Government Teacher's College for Men and Women respectively.

Expenditure.—The total expenditure on primary schools was Rs. 57,17,014 and it was met from the following sources :—

		Rs.	Percentage of total.
(1) Government	..	50,85 947	88·9
(2) District Local Board	..	4,12,680	7·2
(3) Municipal Funds	..	63,120	1·1
(4) Fees	..	1,02,314	1·7
(5) Endowments etc.	..	1,409	0·2
(6) Other Sources	..	51,544	0·9
Total	..	57,17,014	

The average cost of educating a pupil in District School Board's school was Rs. 26·81 per annum, of which Government's contribution was Rs. 24·98.

The District School Board, Ratnagiri, introduced compulsory education for the first time at Murdi, Dapoli taluka, from 1st March 1938. This scheme was applied to children between 6 and 11 years of age. The total number of children of the age groups under compulsion was 1,48,330 and the total number enrolled was 1,28,078. In all 1,441 villages were brought under compulsory education scheme.

Medium of Instruction.

Medium of Instruction.—According to the medium of instruction, in 1957-58 the schools were distributed as follows :—

Medium of instruction		Public.	Private	Total
Marathi	..	2,121	201	2,322
Urdu	..	155	2	157
Total	..	2,276	203	2,479

CHAPTER 17.
Welfare Departments.
EDUCATION.
Secondary Education.
Basic and Craft Schools

In 1957-58, of 2,919 buildings in which the District Local Board schools were housed, 537 were owned by the Board, 241 rented and the remaining were housed in temples, *dharmashalas* and other places.

Basic and Craft Schools.—A new ideology has been influencing the educational activities of the State since 1937-38. It is recognised that education must include some form of practical training. There were in all 218 craft schools of which 94 had spinning; 53 spinning and weaving; 25 agriculture and 46 carpentry as crafts.

Secondary Education.

SECONDARY EDUCATION : Secondary education is now under the general regulations of Government, and Government control is exercised by means of conditions for receipt of grant-in-aid. At the end of the high school course an examination is conducted by the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board, and the students who pass are awarded the Secondary School Certificates. The office of the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board is located in Poona. The first examination was held in 1949. The examination provides optional courses for pupils with varied interest and aptitudes. Each university, however lays down the subjects which candidates must take for entrance to its courses.

Statistics. (1957-58).

There were 56 secondary schools in the district, with a total of 12,059 pupils (9,478 boys and 2,581 girls). Three schools were exclusively for girls. The number of girls in the schools exclusively meant for girls was 655. There is a technical high school under the control of the Director of Technical Education. The grants paid to non-Government secondary schools in 1957-58, amounted to Rs. 4,96,228 for boys' schools and Rs. 28,182 for girls' schools.

The number of private aided schools was 56 and the number of pupils in them was 12,059.

Secondary education was imparted mainly by private agencies aided by Government grants.

There were 545 teachers in secondary schools, of whom 483 were men (211 trained and 272 untrained) and 62 women (38 trained and 24 untrained).

The total expenditure on secondary education was Rs. 13,27,480. Of this Rs. 5,24,910 was met by the State Government.

The total annual average cost per pupil in secondary schools was Rs. 110·08.

Special Schools.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS : There were 14 special schools having 1,144 pupils as per details given below :—

Kind of Institution.	Number of Institutions.	Pupils.
(1) Gymnasia ..	2	307
(2) Arts and Crafts ..	1	9
(3) Music ..	2	40
(4) Fisheries ..	4	788
(5) Other schools — (pre-primary) ..	5	N.A.
Total ..	14	1,144

Physical Education.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION : Two trained Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors look after the physical activities in the district. They visit secondary, full primary and training institutions and give suggestions and guidance to further the cause of physical education. They also inspect the *vyayam shalas* run by private bodies and recommend grants. They often conduct short-term courses for primary teachers for training in physical education.

Boy Scouts, Girl Guides and Auxiliary Cadet Corps.

BOY SCOUTS, GIRL GUIDES AND AUXILIARY CADET CORPS.—In 1957-58, there were 12 troops for boys and 2 for girls, in which 299 boy scouts and 24 girl guides participated. The high schools had 40 Auxiliary Cadet Corps.

Medical Inspection.

MEDICAL INSPECTION : There is arrangement for medical inspection of high school and training college students.

School Broadcast and Visual Education.

SCHOOL BROADCAST AND VISUAL EDUCATION : Most of the well-established schools in this district have radio sets. Some schools own 16 m.m. and 35 m.m. projectors in order to cater to the needs of visual education.

Social Education.

SOCIAL EDUCATION : The work of social education in this district is looked after by the Social Education Committee for Ratnagiri. During 1957-58, 345 social education classes were conducted in the district. The expenditure on account of social education amounted to Rs. 9,705.

Village Libraries.

VILLAGE LIBRARIES : During 1957-58, there were 350 village libraries in this district. The expenditure on them as well as on reading rooms was Rs. 10,478.

Affiliated College.

R.P. GOGATE COLLEGE, RATNAGIRI (1945) : The College provides for teaching courses of study leading up to a (a) the B.A. (General Examination in Ardha-Magadhi, Persian, Urdu, History and Philosophy, and the B.A. (General) and B.A. (Honours) examinations in

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments.

English, Sanskrit, Marathi and Economics; (b) the B.Sc., Examination in Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics, and Biology; and (c) the T.D. Examination. The college is affiliated to the University of Poona.

TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

Technical and Industrial Training.

ALL TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTIONS AND COURSES leading up to the diploma standard (non-university grade), excluding courses falling under the control of the University, are controlled by the Department of Technical Education, Bombay. Government have set up the State Council of Technical Education to advise them and make recommendations regarding :

(1) the courses and standards of instruction in technical institutions;

(2) arrangements for the periodical inspection and examination of those institutions as regards their staff, accommodation, equipment, courses of study, methods of work and actual work done;

(3) the requirements of the State in technical and industrial education;

(4) opening of new technical institutions;

(5) conditions of recognition of new institutions;

(6) payment of grants-in-aid to institutions;

(7) appointment of boards of studies for the various branches of engineering and technology;

(8) arrangements for examinations;

(9) award of certificates and diplomas;

(10) preparation of text-books on technical subjects in Hindi and the regional languages.

The Chairman of the Council is elected by the Council and the Inspector of Technical Education (Chemical Engineering) is the Secretary of the Council.

The following institutions in Ratnagiri district are recognised by the Department of Technical Education :—

CHAPTER 17.
Welfare Departments.
TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

Name of the Institution.	Management.	Recognised for.	Courses of instruction (with duration of courses shown in brackets.)
(1) Technical-cum-Industrial Centre, Ratnagiri.	Government Department of Technical Education.	Inspection and Examination ..	(1) Carpentry Theory .. .. (2 years). (2) Carpentry Practical .. .. (2 years). (3) Motor Mechanic .. .. (2 years). (4) Fitter .. .. (2 years). (5) Tracer .. .. (1 year). (6) Wireman Apprentice .. (2 years). (7) Electrician .. .. (1 year).
(2) Topiwala Memorial Technical School, Sawantwadi.	Government Department of Education.	Inspection and Examination.	(1) Tailoring and Cutting .. .. (1 year). (2) Handloom Weaving .. .. (2 years). (3) Carpentry .. .. (2 years). (4) Typography .. .. (3 years).
(3) Mahila Vidyalaya, Ratnagiri ..	Private	Inspection and Examination ..	(1) Tailoring course in women's and Children's garments.
(4) Mahila Kala Mandir, Malvan ..	Private ..	Inspection and Examination ..	(1) Tailoring course in Women's and Children garments.
(5) Rajapur High School (Composite), Rajapur.	Private	Inspection and Examination ..	(1) Tailoring course in Women's and Children's garments. (2) Carpentry.

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

The Director of Technical Education conducts the annual examination of the recognised institutions as detailed in the table in the courses approved by the State Council of Technical Education, Bombay and awards certificates or diplomas to the successful candidates.

The School of Industry, Ratnagiri which was established by a private body in 1863 was taken over by Government in July, 1941 under the Post-War Reconstruction Scheme. A technical section has been added to the school from the year 1951-52. This school now takes a new division each of Standards VIII-XI from two local secondary schools for instruction in the following three technical subjects (free of charge).

(1) Geometrical and Machine Shop Drawing.

(2) Workshop Technology (Grade I).

(3) Elements of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering.

The instructions in non-technical subjects are given by the parent schools concerned. The school has now been styled as "Government Technical-*cum*-Industrial Centre, Ratnagiri."

The Topiwala Memorial Technical School started by the ex-ruler of the Sawantwadi State is now under the control of the Maharashtra Government, after its merger with the former Bombay State. A technical section has also been started at the school from June, 1957, by drawing students from two local secondary schools for technical institutions.

THE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

MEDICAL. ORGANIZATION.

THE MEDICAL ORGANISATION IN THE DISTRICT IS essentially a hospital organisation designed to render medical relief to the general population.

The Civil Hospital, Ratnagiri, is the main Government Hospital at the headquarters. It is owned, staffed, financed and controlled by Government. There are also two other hospitals owned by Government at the headquarters, viz Mental Hospital and the Sir, D. M. P. Leprosy Hospital. There are a number of Government aided dispensaries which are scattered throughout the district. The aided dispensaries are mostly owned and managed by municipalities and Ratnagiri District Local Board. According to rules, municipalities and local boards must devote at least 4 per cent. and 10 per cent. respectively of their annual income to medical relief. Reports are submitted each year to Government showing how far this obligation is carried out. Following is the list of hospitals and dispensaries in Ratnagiri district which are run by Government and local bodies;

Government Institutions.—(1) Civil Hospital, Ratnagiri, (2) Cottage Hospital, Sawantwadi, (3) Banda dispensary, (4) Mangaon dispensary, (5) Awalegaon dispensary, (6) Kudal dispensary, (7) Government mobile dispensary for Chiplun, Guhagar, Khed and Dapoli Talukas.

District Local Institutions.—(1) Cottage Hospital, Dapoli, (2) Deorukh dispensary, (3) Deogad dispensary, (4) Guhagar dispensary.

Municipal Institutions.—(1) Khed dispensary, (2) Chiplun dispensary, (3) Rajapur dispensary, (4) Malvan dispensary, (5) Vengurla dispensary.

The medical officers in charge of the municipal and the district local board dispensaries are for the most part Government servants, who draw their pay and pensions directly from Government. The local bodies pay contribution to Government at the rate of Rs. 431 a month for Maharashtra Medical Service, Class II Officer and Rs. 196 per year for Maharashtra Medical Service, Class III Officer and Rs. 152·50 nP. per month for Maharashtra Medical Service, Class III (Ayurvedic) Officer and Government pays them an equivalent grant-in-aid. These hospitals and dispensaries are governed according to the rules for the Government aided charitable dispensaries, 1928, whereby, among other things, the medical officers are required to perform the medicolegal work. The institutions are under the management of the local bodies concerned and the affairs of the institutions are supervised by the district local board or the municipality, as the case may be. In the case of hospitals and dispensaries maintained by private bodies grants equal to one-fourth of their approved expenditure or equal to the actual deficit, whichever is less, are given.

Civil Surgeon.

The Civil Surgeon, Ratnagiri, is the administrative head of the medical organisation in the district. He is subordinate to the Deputy Director of Medical Services, Bombay Division, Bombay. He is in charge of the medical arrangements of the Civil Hospital at Ratnagiri and exercises complete control over the medical officers in the district. He is also the head of the Government medical officers in the district and is responsible for their efficiency and discipline and for the proper performance of their duties. He is in addition the inspecting officer of all Government and aided hospitals, dispensaries and subsidised medical practitioner centres in the district. He is also required to supervise the administration of the grant-in-aid dispensaries and hospitals in the district, and also to take an active part in the sanitary administration of Ratnagiri town as well, in public health matters affecting the district, in collaboration with the Health Officers of the Ratnagiri Municipality and the District Health Officer of the district, respectively.

Civil Hospital Ratnagiri.

The Civil Hospital is centrally situated in the Ratnagiri town. It is an old building with accommodation for 40 beds. The work of constructing a new building for the hospital is included in the

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. MEDICAL.

Second Five-Year Plan. Out of the forty beds sanctioned, six are maternity beds. There is a separate maternity ward attached to the hospital for six beds. In addition there is one nursing home for ex-servicemen patients in the hospital premises. There are six beds in the nursing home. Besides, there is a separate ward for T.B. patients having 12 beds. In 1957, the total number of indoor patients treated in this hospital was 1,324 and outdoor patients 13,166 and the daily average was 55·7 and 213·0 respectively. The expenditure in 1957, was Rs. 92,486.

There is an advisory committee attached to this hospital composed of the Civil Surgeon as the chairman and six other members. The functions of this committee are to help the management of the hospital by keeping the authorities informed as to the needs of the hospital as viewed by the public and advising the medical officer in charge of all measures of reform to be carried out in connection with the welfare of the patients. The departmental rules provide for the election to the committee of representatives from the District Local Board and Ratnagiri Municipality and also for nomination of two ladies.

The present paid staff of the hospital consists of the Civil Surgeon (M. M. S., Class I), Sub-charge (M. M. S., Class III), Second Assistant (M. M. S., Class III) and one lady doctor (M. M. S., Class III). The honorary staff consists of three medical officers at present. There is one laboratory technician working in the hospital. There is a post of sister sanctioned for this hospital. There are five nurses, two midwives and one sister in the hospital. In addition to the Civil Hospital, Ratnagiri, there are five Government hospitals and dispensaries in the district taken over from the former Savantwadi State, viz., Sawantwadi, Banda, Mangaon, Awalegaon and Kudal.

Subsidised Medical Practitioners.

There are 41 subsidised Medical Practitioners' centres in the district located at the following places :—

(1) Matwan.
(2) Mandangad.
(3) Dahagaon.
(4) Bankot.
(5) Dhamnand.
(6) Khopi.
(7) Lavel.
(8) Shiotar.
(9) Mandave.
(10) Chatao.
(11) Savanas.
(12) Kalkaone.
(13) Kutre.
(14) Bamnoli.
(15) Murtaode.
(16) Margatamhane.
(17) Deole.
(18) Hedvi.
(19) Nayari.
(20) Bhambed.
(21) Rayapatan.
(22) Kharepatan.
(23) Jaitapur.
(24) Saitawade.
(25) Khanu.
(26) Vijayadurg.

(27) Shirgaon.
(28) Lanje.
(29) Shiposhi.
(30) Kankavli.
(31) Ramagad.
(32) Kochara.
(33) Kalana.
(34) Kalmbist.
(35) Bhedshi.
(36) Keraoda.
(37) Dabhil.
(38) Nardave.
(39) Mandivali.
(40) Kelshi.
(41) Palawani.

The subsidised Medical Practitioners' Scheme is introduced to encourage qualified medical practitioners to settle in rural areas. Under this scheme an allopathic practitioner gets a subsidy of Rs. 150 per month, and ayurvedic qualified practitioner Rs. 120 per month and an ayurvedic non-qualified practitioner Rs. 80 per month. Travelling allowance is paid at Rs. 37·50 per month to all the subsidised medical practitioners.

Allopathic subsidised medical practitioners are supplied with medicines worth Rs. 500 per year and Ayurvedic subsidised medical practitioners are supplied with medicines worth Rs. 300 per year. Four-fifth of the expenditure is borne by Government and one-fifth by the District Local Board.

Mental Hospital, Ratnagiri.

The hospital was established in 1886. It is in charge of a Superintendent. There are two other medical officers, one psychiatrist social worker, one female nurse and two male nurses in the hospital. There are 226 beds in the hospital. The hospital has a male ward, a female ward, a criminal ward and solitary cells, etc. The average yearly attendance of patients in 320 (1959).

THE PUBLIC HEALTH DEPARTMENT.

Public Health Organisation.

THE PUBLIC HEALTH OF THE DISTRICT is looked after by two agencies, viz. the Public Health Department of the State and the local bodies like the District Local Board, the municipalities and the village panchayats.

At the head of the Public Health Department is the Director of Public Health, who has his headquarters at Poona. The District Health Officer represents the Public Health Department and is the head of the district in all public health matters. He is directly under the Deputy Director of Public Health, Bombay Division, Poona.

The District Health Officer investigates the causes, origin and spread of diseases both epidemic and endemic and adopts preventive measures to control diseases such as cholera, smallpox, plague, guinea-worm, influenza, etc.; undertakes routine immunisation and disinfection measures for prevention of epidemics; organises sanitary

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. PUBLIC HEALTH.

measures in fairs and festivals; inspects sites for school buildings, village extension, wells, burial grounds, etc; expresses opinion regarding their suitability from health point of view; and advises municipalities, village panchayats and village authorities about health, sanitation, water supply and drainage. He also inspects primary health centres, maternity and child health, family planning and leprosy centres; looks to school and industrial hygiene; recommends issue of licences for cinema theatres and other places of public amusement to the licensing authorities after satisfying himself that the various sanitary provisions are fulfilled, inspects factories and mines in the capacity of *ex-officio* Inspector of Factories or Mines to enforce the sanitary regulations and also carries out health propaganda with the help of his subordinate staff.

He keeps himself informed as far as possible of all influences affecting or likely to affect injuriously the public health in the district and takes necessary steps. His subordinate staff consists of: (1) Epidemic Medical Officer, (2) Medical Officer in charge, Primary Health Centre, (3) Medical Officer in charge, Leprosy Hospital, (4) Subsidised Medical Practitioner in charge, Primary Health Units, (5) Eight Sanitary Inspectors, and (6) Two Leprosy Assistants and others.

There are two special officers for Malaria Eradication Programme in the district, who, with an adequate staff under them, function from Ratnagiri and Sawantwadi, and maintain a close liaison with the District Health Officer.

Functions of Public Health Officers, Epidemic Medical Officers.

The main duty of the Epidemic Medical Officer is to control epidemics and in non-epidemic times to adopt preventive measures against possible outbreak and also to render medical relief in rural areas. The Epidemic Medical Officer, Ratnagiri, is provided with a van. On the first report of an outbreak of an epidemic, he rushes to the places to carry out mass inoculation or vaccination, disinfection and disinfestation, protection of water supply and domiciliary treatment.

The district of Ratnagiri is divided into six circles and one Sanitary Inspector is placed in charge of each circle.

Sanitary Inspectors.

The sanitary inspector is responsible for all public health matters in his charge, including control of epidemics. He conducts regular vaccination inspection. With the intention of improving the standard of vaccination and sanitation in rural areas, Government has a scheme to replace the existing vaccinators by persons holding Sanitary Inspector's qualifications. The latter are to be styled Sanitary Sub-Inspectors,

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

PUBLIC HEALTH

Vaccinators.

The primary duty of vaccinators is to carry on vaccination in their respective charges. They also assist in carrying out anti-epidemic measures and sanitary works in villages with the help of the sanitary squads under them. The main duty of these squads is to improve the sanitation of villages which have no panchayats. They construct soakage pits, manure pits, trench latrines, and drain and fill pits and also clean the surroundings of schools, wells, etc.

Mukadam.

The mukadam supervises and guides the squads in their work. In times of epidemics, the services of the squads are utilised for adopting anti-epidemic measures under the supervision and guidance of sanitary inspectors and epidemic medical officers.

Medical Officer incharge, Primary Health Centre.

The Medical Officer in overall charge of the Primary Health Centre is responsible for all services rendered by the staff of the Centre such as medical care, control of communicable diseases, improvement of vital statistics, maternity and child health, school health, family planning services, health education and improvement of environmental sanitation in villages in an area having a population of 60,000 approximately.

The Medical Officer is helped by a health visitor or a nurse-*cum*-midwife, a compounder, a sanitary inspector or sub-inspector in the discharge of his duties.

The Subsidised Medical Practitioners are in charge of primary health units.

The duties and functions of subsidised medical practitioners incharge of Primary Health Units are the same as those of Medical Officers of Primary Health Centres but they work for a population of 20,000.

Health Visitors and Midwives.

They are mainly responsible for maternity and child welfare activities They carry out institutional and domiciliary deliveries; take care of ante-natal and post-natal cases, infants, toddlers and pre-school children and train *dais*. They also take active part in other services rendered by the primary health centre like nursing of the sick, family planning, health education, nutrition and school health services.

Family Planning Field Worker.

The family planning field worker is responsible for the family planning programme in the area of the Health Centre. Her main work is to carry out survey of family size, educate the people on the need of family planning, register the cases, prescribe suitable contraceptives, follow up the cases and refer any case for operation if agreed upon by the party and if necessary. These services are rendered in the houses as well as in clinics.

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. PUBLIC HEALTH. The Medical Officer incharge D. M. Petit Hospital.

The Medical Officer in charge, D. M. Petit Hospital, Ratnagiri, is in overall charge of the hospital, which is meant for indoor treatment of leprosy patients. It has 100 beds for institutional treatment of leprosy cases. Two, survey, education and treatment units for leprosy, one each at Dapoli and Chiplun, were established since 1959 and from the enquiry made by the Leprosy Assistants attached to these units, it has been found that many persons suffer from leprosy in the district.

Leprosy Assistants are non-medical workers trained in leprosy work. They are appointed in the survey, education and treatment units attached to the dispensaries and work under the supervision of the Medical Officer in charge of dispensary. They carry out survey, education and treatment of leprosy patients and follow up the contacts in the areas allotted to them.

Obligatory duties of the local bodies.

Public vaccination and execution of measures necessary for public health are obligatory duties of the municipalities in urban areas and of the District Local Boards in rural areas. The District Health Officer advises these bodies in respect of public health and sanitary problems.

Municipalities.

There are seven municipalities in the district of which one is a borough municipality and the rest are district municipalities. The municipalities receive grant-in-aid from Government towards the employment of qualified health officers and sanitary inspectors. The sanitary inspectors bring to the notice of the Medical Officer, (where there is one), or the Chief Officer of the municipality the defects noticed by them during their rounds and the Medical Officer or the Chief Officer takes action according to the power vested in him by the bye-laws.

District Local Boards.

There is no Health Officer or Sanitary Inspector in the employ of the District Local Board. There are 27 vaccinators who are Government servants. A fixed contribution is received from the District Local Board towards the pay of these vaccinators and contingent charges are borne by the Board. Rest of the expenditure is borne by Government. In villages having panchayats, sanitation is looked after by the panchayats. The sanitary arrangements made by the village panchayats are inspected by the Officers of the Public Health Department and the defects noticed by them are brought to the notice of the President, District Local Board. The village panchayats are empowered to levy taxes to enable them to meet the expenses towards improvement of the village, purchase of medicines, drugs and disinfectants, lighting, water supply, etc. In villages which have no panchayats, the District Local Board deals directly with complaints relating to sanitary conditions, water supply, etc.

The following table gives the number of deaths due to chief diseases in Ratnagiri from 1951 to 1958 :–

Year.		Cholera.	Smallpox.	Fevers.	Respiratory diseases.	Dysentory and diarrhoea.
1951	..	11	135	8,730	5,277	798
1952	..	8	62	9,582	5,114	686
1953	..	43	86	750	5,431	1,044
1954	..	....	185	7,636	5,603	1,040
1955	..	....	13	8,589	4,765	605
1956	..	....	1	6,289	....	717
1957	..	....	105	8,524	4,712	758
1958	..	....	129	7,469	3,441	652

The chief diseases noted to exist in the district are leprosy, malaria, tuberculosis, guineaworm and smallpox.

Malaria.

The malaria survey of Ratnagiri district was carried out by the Malaria Organisation, Bombay State, during the period from May, 1950 to April, 1951.

In all, 172 villages were visited for spleen survey. Out of 11,226 children examined, 318 were found positive, giving the cumulative spleen rate for the district as 2·8 per cent. The children's blood examination was restricted to the highly endemic area. Out of 41 positive smears, 27 were of P. vivax and 14 were of P. falciparum. Total A. culicifacies collection was 2,231. Out of these, only one was found to be positive. *A fluviatilis*, though not found infected, was certainly a vector of importance in Sawantwadi and Kudal talukas. Certain sections of Sawantwadi and Kudal talukas were found to be malarious, and the rest of the district was completely free from the incidence as judged by spleen rates. D.D.T. spraying was, therefore, to start with, restricted to Sawantwadi and Kudal talukas. It commenced in the year 1950. From the year 1953, the taluka of Mandangad was also taken up for D.D.T. spraying under the Malaria Control Programme. In the year 1956, when the D.D.T. spraying operations were extended to hypoendemic areas, whole of the district was brought under spray. So far, the anti-malaria work was being carried out through the District Health Office. On 1st April 1959 this district was allotted two full-fledged Malaria Education Units, one stationed at Ratnagiri and the other at Sawantwadi. These units are sanctioned under National Malaria Eradication Programme in which the creation of hypoendemic units is proposed. Each unit is fully staffed according to the pattern of the National Malaria Eradication Programme and is allotted four trucks and one jeep for transport etc. The population covered by Ratnagiri and Sawantwadi units is 8,51,618 and 8,60,346 respectively. The incidence of malaria has been brought to a negligible level as judged by spleen rates, child parasite rates, infant parasite rates and morbidity statistics. The

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. PUBLIC HEALTH. *Tuberculosis.*

further plan is to eradicate malaria through chemo-therapeutic methods and intensive D.D.T. spraying under National Malaria Eradication Programme.

Many persons from the district go to Bombay and work in factories and mills over there. Due to incongenial atmosphere in the factories their resistance capacity deteriorates. As a result they get tuberculosis infection. Naturally the district has too many tuberculor patients. The B.C.G. vaccination programme is being carried out in the district by the mobile B.C.G. teams of the Public Health Department.

Guineaworm.

The disease is highly prevalent in the northern part of Ratnagiri district as the water supply in this part is mainly from step wells, tanks and *gundas* (open wells without parapet walls) and infected persons, due to ignorance, freely contaminate the water supply and help the spread of the disease. Step wells are being converted into draw wells. Arrangements to disinfect water supplies with repeated and heavy doses of bleaching powder are made.

Epidemics.

In urban areas it is the statutory duty of the municipalities to provide special medical aid and accommodation for the sick when epidemics occur and take such measures as may be required to prevent the outbreak, or to suppress and prevent the recurrence of the disease. In rural areas, the primary responsibility for dealing with out-breaks of epidemics rests with the District Local Board. The Board is required to set apart annually a lump sum equal to the average of the amounts spent during the preceding three years for expenditure in connection with epidemics. The grant is placed at the disposal of the Director of Public Health for emergency measures. The Collector is empowered to take action in consultation with the Director of Public Health, if he finds the measures taken by the Board are inadequate. Similar powers have been conferred on the Collector in respect of urban areas also. The District Local Board is helped in its task by the District Health Officer, and the staff under him. The services of Dispensary Medical Officers and Subsidised Medical Practitioners are also utilised.

The incidence of cholera and smallpox during the eight years i.e. from 1951 to 1958 is given below:—

Year.		Smallpox.		Cholera.	
		Attacks.	Deaths.	Attacks.	Deaths.
1951	..	565	135	34	11
1952	..	257	62	16	8
1953	..	577	86	120	43
1954	..	1,334	185	....	....
1955	..	134	13	....	....
1956	..	5	1	....	....
1957	..	732	105	....	....
1958	..	813	80	....	....

CHAPTER 17.

—

Welfare Departments.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

Cholera.

Ratnagiri district has been almost free from cholera for years together.

Smallpox.

The district is very prone to smallpox in epidemic form. The disease is controlled by means of vaccination.

Plague.

There was no out-break of plague in this district since 1949.

Primary Health Centres.

Five primary health centres are established at Kotwade and Pawas in Ratnagiri taluka, Wawe and Talen in Khed taluka and Dabhol in Dapoli taluka in Ratnagiri district.

The staff at each primary health centre consists of a Medical Officer, a Health Visitor or a Nurse-*cum*-Midwife, four midwives, a Sanitary Inspector, and other subordinates. The centre covers a population of 60,000 approximately. Each centre has three sub-centres under it where a midwife is posted.

As already stated before, the Primary Health Centres provide basic health services in rural areas. They carry out preventive, curative as well as maternity and child health services and thus play a vital part as a medium of service among the village population.

Maternity and Child Health Centres.

There are two maternity and child health centres one at Dapoli in Dapoli taluka and other at Kudal in Kudal mahal, working under the supervision of the Medical Officer in charge of District Local Board dispensaries. Each centre is staffed with two nurse-*cum*-midwives and serves a population of 20,000. They carry out intensive maternity and child health work amongst a selected population.

Family Planning Centres.

To check the uncontrolled growth of population and improve the standard of living, family planning centres were set up in the district. One such centre is located at Khanu in Ratnagiri taluka and the other is at Kankavli in Kankavli mahal. The centres work in conjunction with the primary health centres at those places. Besides the above two rural centres, there is an urban family planning centre at Ratnagiri proper run by the Mahila Mandal with the help of the Public Health Department.

School Hygiene and Medical Inspection of School children.

The Epidemic Medical Officers and Medical Officers in charge of the primary health centres carry on occasional medical examination of school children during the course of their tours and distribute drugs for minor ailments and vitamin tablets to children suffering from deficiency diseases. Propaganda with the help of magic lantern or films is carried on to educate school children in personal hygiene.

Propaganda.

Health propaganda is carried out by all the health staff. Magic lantern lectures and health talks are given on subjects such as nutritious food, prevention of blindness, cholera, typhoid, etc. at

the time of fairs and exhibitions. Public Health stalls are arranged where models and posters on health subjects are exhibited and educative films are shown by the propaganda van of the department.

PUBLIC HEALTH. Fairs.

Fairs are managed by the local bodies according to suggestions from the District Health Officer. Every year the following important fairs are held in the district.

Name of fair	Time.	Number attending.
1. Kunkeshwar Fair, Deogad	Shivaratri for 3 days	10,000
2. Ganapati Pule Fair, Ratnagiri.	Maghi Paurnima for 3 to 4 days.	10,000

The Kunkeshwar fair in Deogad taluka is being managed by the District Local Board and Ganapati Pule Fair by the Gram Panchayat, Malgund, with the help of the public health staff.

Whenever there is an epidemic in the surrounding area, in addition to other preventive measures, compulsory inoculation or vaccination is enforced.

Famine Relief.

When famine and scarcity conditions are declared to exist in the district, the District Health Officer is under the general orders of the Collector in so far as medical and sanitary arrangements on scarcity and famine relief works are concerned.

Vital Statistics.

The compilation of statistics of births and deaths for the Ratnagiri district is done in the office of the Assistant Director of Public Health in charge of Epidemiology and Vital Statistics, Poona. In the municipal areas, the municipalities concerned maintain registers of births and deaths and forward monthly extracts to the Assistant Director of Public Health. In rural areas, the register is maintained by village officers and monthly extracts are sent by them to the taluka officers for transmission to the Assistant Director of Public Health.

Water Supply.

Piped water supply is available in the towns and villages as shown below :—

(1) Khed Municipality, Khed.
(2) Dhamnar Divi, Khed.
(3) Ayani Tal, Khed.
(4) Parshuram Tal, Chiplun.
(5) Sangameshwar.
(6) Rajapur Municipality.
(7) Amboli Tal, Sawantwadi.

(8) Shiv Bk. Khed.

(9) Songaon, Khed.

(10) Chiplun Municipality,

(11) Pophali, Chiplun.

(12) Ratnagiri Municipality.

(13) Sawantwadi Municipality.

(14) Gharpi Tal, Sawantwadi.

In the remaining parts of the district, wells form the chief source of drinking water. Rivers in Khed and Chiplun talukas are also used as a source of drinking water. During summer there is scarcity of water in the talukas in the northern part of the district. The work of construction of new wells, repairs to old wells and conversion of step wells into draw wells is executed by the Block Development authorities.

THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT.

LABOUR. Organisation.

ALL THE OFFICES DEALING WITH LABOUR MATTERS fall within the administrative control of the Industries and Labour Department of the Government of Maharashtra. The Commissioner of Labour subordinate to that Department is the head of all such offices. The Commissioner of Labour has now under him three Deputy Commissioners of Labour (two at Bombay and one at Nagpur), 16 Assistant Commissioners of Labour Welfare viz., 12 at Bombay, one at Poona, two at Nagpur and one at Aurangabad; Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay; Chief Inspectors of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances and Government Labour Officer, Bombay.

Deputy Commissioner (Labour Administration).

Office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour (Administration) which was hitherto a separate office was amalgamated with the office of the Commissioner of Labour with effect from 16th August 1958. The Commissioner of Labour, Bombay, administers the statutory functions entrusted to him under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, the Industrial Disputes Act, the Minimum Wages Act and the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act. In addition, the office performs the following functions :—

(1) Compilation and publication of Consumer Price Index Number for working class for Bombay, Sholapur, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Aurangabad and Nanded.

(2) Conducting of socio-economic enquiries into the conditions of labour.

(3) Compiling and disseminating information on labour matters generally and statistics regarding industrial disputes, agricultural wages, absenteeism, cotton mill production, trade unions, etc., in particular.

(4) Collection of statistics under the Collection of Statistics Act, 1953.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

LABOUR.

(5) Publication of two monthlies viz.,

(i) The Labour Gazette; and

(ii) The Industrial Court Reporter.

Under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the Central Government is the appropriate authority to deal with industrial disputes concerning any industry carried on by or under the authority of the Central Government or by a railway or concerning any such controlled industry as may be specified in this behalf by the Central Government or in respect of banking companies having branches in more than one State including the State Bank of India and the Reserve Bank of India, the Life Insurance Corporation or Insurance Companies having branches in more than one State or a mine, an oil-field or a major port. Conciliation work in other labour disputes arising in the district is done directly by one of the Assistant Commissioners, stationed at Bombay, who have been notified as Conciliators and Conciliation Officers under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act and the Industrial Disputes Act, respectively.

One of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour, Bombay, has been appointed as Registrar under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 and has jurisdiction over the State. He has under him an Assistant Registrar who also functions at Bombay. The Registrar's work which is of a quasi-judicial nature falls under the following heads viz., (a) recognition of undertakings and occupations; (b) registration of unions; (c) maintenance of approved lists of unions; (d) registration of agreements, settlements, submissions and awards and maintenance of a list of joint committees constituted under section 48 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act

Undertakings.

In the district, 28 banking undertakings have been recognised under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act. There are no other concerns in any of the other industries recognised for the purposes of the Act nor has there been any union registered under the Act.

One of the Deputy Commissioners of Labour at Bombay has been notified as the Registrar of Trade Unions for the State under section 3 of the Indian Trade Unions Act. 1926, in addition to his duties as Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. He is assisted in his work by the Assistant Registrar under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 (in addition to the duties as Assistant Registrar under Bombay Industrial Relations Act, Bombay).

The work in connection with the administration of this Act includes the registration of trade unions, registration of amendments to the constitutions of the unions and preparation of the annual report on the working of the Act in the State based on the information contained in the annual returns submitted by the registered trade unions under section 28 of the Act.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

LABOUR.

On 31st December 1957, in the district there were six unions registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. Of these two were from "Mining and Quarrying" group and one each from the "Manufacturing", "Transport Storage and Communications", "Services" and "Miscellaneous" groups.

Wages and Earnings.

The Government of Maharashtra have fixed the rates of minimum wages for different categories of workers (skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled) in respect of employments, in any (i) rice mill, flour mill or dal mill, (ii) tobacco (including bidi-making) manufactory (iii) oil mill, and (iv) under any local authority, (v) on the construction or maintenance of roads or buildings operations, (vi) in stone breaking or stone crushing, (vii) in public motor transport, (vii) in tanneries and leather manufactory, (ix) in industry in which process of printing, by letter press, lithography, photo gravure or other similar work or work incidental to such process or book binding is carried on, and (x) in cotton ginning and cotton pressing manufactory, specified in Schedule I to the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, and the rates fixed have been published in the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, with the Bombay Minimum Wages Rules, 1951.

The Bombay Shops and Establishments Act (LXXIX of 1948), has been applied in the district to the municipal areas of Ratnagiri, Khed, Chiplun, Sangameshwar, Malvan, Sawantwadi and Vengurla.

Employee's State Insurance Act.

The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 and the Employees' Provident Funds Act, 1952 are applicable to the Ratnagiri district. The Employees' State Insurance Scheme under the Employees' State Insurance Act has not, however, been extended to the district.

Labour Officer.

A Government Labour Officer and six Assistant Labour Officers, have been posted at Bombay to be in charge of Greater Bombay, Thana, Kolaba and Ratnagiri districts.

The post of a Labour Officer, Bombay, was first created in 1934. He was subsequently notified as Labour Officer under the Bombay Industrial Disputes Act, 1935, and a post of Assistant Labour Officer was also created in the year 1939. Subsequently, the Bombay Industrial Relations Act was replaced by the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946. The number of the posts of the Assistant Labour Officers was later on increased to six to cope with the increase in work. One of the Assistant Labour Officers generally attends to the work coming from this district. They are all Class II Gazetted Officers. The posts of Assistant Labour Officers are of the same cadre as that of the Labour Officers, in mofussil and the post of the Government Labour Officer, Bombay, is of the same cadre as that of the Assistant Commissioner of Labour. The Assistant Labour Officers, Bombay, work under the Government Labour Officer, Bombay, and assist him in discharge of his duties in the above areas. The Government Labour Officer, Bombay, works under the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. They are appointed primarily to implement the provisions of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act,

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

LABOUR.

1946, which is a State Act and are also notified as Inspectors under the Minimum Wages Act and the Payment of Wages Act. In addition, they have been appointed as Additional Inspectors of Factories in respect of certain sections pertaining to the Welfare Provisions under the Factories Act, 1948. The powers conferred and the duties imposed on a Labour Officer under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act are not restricted to any particular section under that Act but are scattered throughout the whole Act. However, the main powers and the duties of the Labour Officer are mainly given in Chapter VI and Section 34 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act. For the purpose of exercising his powers and performing his duties, a Labour Officer may enter any place used for any industry, any place used as the office of any union and any premises provided by an employer for the residence of his employees and he is entitled to call for and inspect all relevant documents which he may deem necessary for the due discharge of his duties and powers under this Act. He has also the power of convening a meeting of employees for any of the purposes of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, on the premises where the employees are employed and may require the employer to affix a written notice of the meeting at such conspicuous place as he may order. A Labour Officer is charged with the duty of watching the interest of employees and promoting harmonious relations between the employers and the employees, of investigating the grievances of employees who are not members of the approved unions and of members of an approved union on the request of such a union, of representing to the employers such grievances and making recommendations to them in respect of the same and of reporting to the State Government the existence of any industrial dispute of which no notice of change has been given, together with the names of the parties thereto. A Labour Officer, in certain contingencies, acts as a representative of the employees if so authorised by them and where a representative union does not exist and he is not authorised also by the employees to act as their representative and where the employees themselves do not elect their own representative from amongst them then he becomes their representative *suo motu*. In short, a Labour Officer has to work as a sort of residual representative of the employees. He has also to help a representative and an approved union. He has always to be in touch with the changes in the labour situation in the various industrial undertakings covered by the Bombay Industrial Relations Act and to report major and important incidents to his superior officers and Government. He intervenes whenever there is a stoppage or strike and gives correct legal guidance and advice to the employees involved in such incidents and he does likewise in respect of employers in connection with the closures and lock-outs which may not be legal. In short, he explains the correct position under law to the parties concerned with a view to seeing that any illegal action on their part is rectified by them without any delay. Under Section 82 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act the Labour Officer is the only executive officer, except the person affected by any offence who can make a complaint to the Labour

Court constituted under the Act. In addition, a Labour Officer can also start proceedings in a Labour Court under section 79 read with section 78 of the said Act. In short, a Labour Officer has been given very heavy, onerous and heterogeneous duties and responsibilities. He also informally advises the trade unions whenever they seek his advice on labour matters. For purposes of certification of Standing Orders under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, a Labour Officer helps the Commissioner of Labour who is the Certifying Officer under that Act in holding elections of the workmen concerned for the purpose of getting the names of their representatives who are to be associated with the discussions when the draft Standing Orders are to be certified. In addition, the Labour Officer investigates individual complaints in his capacity as Labour Officer.

So far as the enforcement of the Minimum Wages Act in Ratnagiri district is concerned, the establishments in the scheduled employments are looked after by the Junior Inspector of Factories stationed at Kolhapur except the work pertaining to the employment under local authorities which is looked after by Government Labour Officer, Bombay

Industrial Arbitration.

INDUSTRIAL ARBITRATION: The Court of Industrial Arbitration (or the Industrial Court as it is commonly referred to), Bombay, as constituted under section 10 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, has jurisdiction over the whole State except Vidarbha region where the State Industrial Court, Nagpur is functioning under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act. The duties and powers of the Industrial Court are detailed in Chapter XIII of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, as a court of arbitration in industrial disputes referred to it by the Government, the representative unions, and jointly by the parties to a dispute. In its appellate jurisdiction it decides appeals, preferred to it from the decisions of the Labour Courts, the Wage Boards, the Registrar appointed under Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, and the Commissioner of Labour. References on points of law can be made to it by the Conciliator, Commissioner of Labour, Labour Courts, Wages Boards and by Government. The Government may also make a reference to it for a declaration whether a proposed strike, lock-out, closure or stoppage would be illegal. It also hears appeals in criminal cases, pertaining to offences under the Act, from the decisions of the Labour Courts.

There are two Labour Courts in the State, and both are at Bombay. The Labour Courts exercise jurisdiction over Ratnagiri district. These courts are presided over by the Labour Court Judges. The Labour Courts decide disputes regarding orders passed by an employer under the Standing Orders governing the relations between employee and employer, changes made in industrial matters, and special disputes referred to them under the Act. They have also powers to decide upon legality or otherwise of a strike, lock-out,

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. LABOUR. Wage Boards.

closure, stoppage or change. The Labour Courts have also jurisdiction to try persons for offences punishable under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

WAGE BOARDS : There are three Wage Boards appointed for the State one for cotton textile industry, another for silk textile industry and the third for sugar industry. A separate Wage Board has also been constituted for Vidarbha region. The Wage Boards are to decide such disputes as are referred to them by the State Government under section 86-C, and 86-KK, of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

Factory Department.

FACTORY DEPARTMENT : The factory department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, but the Chief Inspector of Factories has complete control over the technical side of the work of the department in the State. The department is responsible mainly for the administration of the Factories Act (LXIII of 1948), but the administration of the following Acts has also been assigned to it.

(1) The Payment of Wages Act (IV of 1936).

(2) The Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act (XII of 1925)-Section 9, regarding approval of plans of new ginning factories

(3) The Employment of Children Act (XXXVI of 1938).

(4) The Bombay Maternity Benefit Act (VII of 1929).

(5) The Minimum Wages Act (XI of 1948).

(6) The Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act (XL of 1953).

The department has a sub-office at Kolhapur under a Junior Inspector of Factories, an Officer belonging to the General State Service. The jurisdiction of this office extends over the districts of Kolhapur, Sangli and Ratnagiri. The main function of the Inspector is to ensure that provisions of the Factories Act are observed by the management of the factories to which the Act is applicable. He is also responsible for the enforcement of the other enactments with the administration of which the factories department has been entrusted. His activities extend to securing labour welfare amenities such as education, recreation and sports, co-operative societies and housing. Under section 8(4) of the Factories Act, the District Magistrate of Ratnagiri is also an Inspector in the district. In addition, all sub-Divisional Magistrates, Mamlatdars, Mahalkaris and Officers of the Public Health department have been appointed as Additional Inspectors for certain provisions of the Act. Under rules made in accordance with Section 9, the full-time Inspector (but not an Additional Inspector) has power to prosecute, conduct or defend before a court any complaint or other proceeding arising under the Act or in discharge of his duties as Inspector.

Welfare Departments.

LABOUR.

Workmen's Compensation Act.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACT : Under the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act (VIII of 1923), the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, has been given exclusive jurisdiction over Greater Bombay. The Commissioner has also exclusive jurisdiction to try all cases relating to the Western and Central railways and the hydro-electric companies under the management of Messrs. Tata Hydro-Electric Agencies Ltd., arising in the State irrespective of the district in which they occur. The Commissioner has also general jurisdiction over the whole State.

The Civil Judge, Senior Division, Ratnagiri district, is *ex-officio* Commissioner for Ratnagiri district.

The principal reason for giving the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, jurisdiction over the whole State is to enable him to settle the cases with insurance companies and other firms which have their head offices in Bombay city. But as this arrangement necessarily entails a certain amount of overlapping, Government have issued instructions under section 20(2) of the Act for distribution of work between the Commissioner and the *ex-officio* Commissioners. Under these instructions, the Commissioner at Bombay is authorised (a) to receive deposits for distribution of compensation under sub-sections (*1*) and (*2*) of section 8; (b) to issue notices to, and to receive applications from dependants in cases of deposits under these sub-sections; and (c) to receive agreements for registration under section 28, wherever the accident may have taken place.

Where a deposit is received or an agreement is tendered for registration, the Commissioner notifies the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned. Applications for orders to deposit compensation when no deposit under section 8(1) has been received, and other applications provided for in section 22 of the Act should be made to the *ex-officio* Commissioner within whose jurisdiction the accident occurs. Notices to employers under section 10 A requiring statements regarding fatal accidents in the districts are issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioners and reports of fatal accidents made under section 10-B are also received by them. After notice has been issued by the *ex officio* Commissioner under section 10-A, the employer deposits the amount with the Commissioner at Bombay and the latter notifies the receipt of the deposit to the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned. Applications for review or commutation of half-monthly payments have to be made to the Commissioner who passed the original orders.

As regards the cases arising out of accidents on the Southern Railway, they are dealt with by the *ex-officio* Commissioners concerned.

Payment of Wages Act, 1936.

PAYMENT OF WAGES ACT, 1936 : In Ratnagiri district the Civil Judge has been appointed as authority for the areas within his jurisdiction.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.
LABOUR.
Minimum Wages Act, 1948.

MINIMUM WAGES ACT, 1948: The Civil Judges who have been appointed authorities under the Payment of Wages Act have been appointed authorities under the Minimum Wages Act to hear and decide claims arising out of payment of less than the minimum rates of wages to employees employed or paid in their respective jurisdictions.

Steam Boiler and Smoke Nuisances Department.

STEAM BOILER AND SMOKE NUISANCES DEPARTMENT: The function of this department is to carry out yearly inspection of steam boilers after they are registered in the State or after recording their transfer from other States and to grant working certificates thereof to ensure their safe working and also to prevent emission of smoke from furnaces and chimneys in excess of legal limits and to prevent any new furnaces being erected before plans are approved by this department. The Bombay Smoke Nuisances Act, 1912 is in operation so far in Sholapur city in addition to the Greater Bombay area. The department conducts examinations for certificates of competency as boiler attendants and of proficiency as Engineers.

There are about nine working boilers located in the whole of Ratnagiri district. Inspection of these boilers for renewal of boiler certificates is carried out by an Inspector whose headquarters are in Bombay. For this purpose the Inspector visits Ratnagiri district once in every year in the month of January. The office of the Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, Maharashtra State, who is the head of this office is also situated at Bombay

Persons desirous of qualifying themselves as Boiler Attendants and as Proficiency Engineers (Mechanical) from this district are required to go to Bombay where these examinations are held under the auspices of the Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, Bombay.

DEPARTMENT OF PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.
Organisation.

SINCE THE INTRODUCTION OF COMPLETE PROHIBITION in the areas of the former State of Bombay from April 1, 1950, the former Department of Excise has been designated as the Department of Prohibition and Excise. The officer in charge of the administration of the department in the district is the Collector of Ratnagiri. He is responsible to the Director of Excise and Prohibition, Maharashtra state. He is invested with various powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949), and also exercises powers under the Dangerous Drugs Act (II of 1930), the Bombay Opium Smoking Act (XX of 1936) and the Bombay Drugs (Control) Act. 1952, the Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955 and Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duty) Act, 1955. Under the Bombay Prohibition Act, prohibition and restrictions have been placed on the manufacture, import, export, transport, sale, possession, use and consumption of liquor, intoxicating drugs or hemp. The Collector has powers to grant, cancel or suspend licences, permits and passes under the Act.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

The Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise, Ratnagiri, assists the Collector and is in actual charge of the work of the department in the district. He has under him a Sub-Inspector stationed at Ratnagiri. They have also been invested with certain powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act, the Bombay Opium Smoking Act and the Bombay Drugs (Control) Act.

Medical Board.

In each taluka a medical board has been constituted consisting of the medical officer in charge of the Government, local board or municipal dispensary and a private independent medical practitioner nominated by Government. The functions of the board are to examine medically any person who applies for a permit to possess opium, *ganja* or *bhang* for personal consumption and who is directed, by the Collector or an officer authorised to grant such permit, for medical examination and, on examination to issue a medical certificate specifying the disease the applicant is suffering from, the drug recommended for personal consumption as medical necessity and the quantity of the drug which may be permitted per month for personal consumption. Medical examination of applicants for permits for foreign liquor on grounds of health is done by the Government medical officers at the Government hospitals or dispensaries in the district So far as the town of Ratnagiri is concerned, the certificates of such examination are issued by the Civil Surgeon himself and at other places they are issued by the Government medical officers and countersigned by the Civil Surgeon, Ratnagiri.

Enforcement work.

The police department is entrusted with the work of prevention, detection, investigation and prosecution of offences under the Prohibition Act and other allied Acts. Officers of the Prohibition and Excise department of and above the rank of Inspector have been invested with powers to investigate offences. The Prohibition and Excise officers pass on any information received by them in connection with prohibition offences to the police department and if any prohibition cases are detected the same are handed over to the police for investigation. The Home Guards organisation also assists the police in this work. Under section 134 of the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949, all Government officers and servants of local authorities are legally bound to assist the police and other persons authorised in this behalf in carrying out the provisions of the Act. Under section 135 occupants of land or buildings, landlords of estates and owners of vessels or vehicles are, in the absence of reasonable excuse, bound to give notice of any illicit tapping of trees or unlawful manufacture of any liquor or intoxicating drugs taking place on or in such land, building, estate, vessel or vehicle, as the case may be, to a magistrate, prohibition officer or police officer, as soon as it comes to their knowledge.

All magistrates and all revenue officers of and above the rank of Mamlatdar or Mahalkari and all officers of the Department of Prohibition and Excise of and above the rank of sub-inspector have been authorised under section 123 of the Act, within the limits of

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.
PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

their respective jurisdiction, to arrest without warrant, any person whom they have reason to believe to be guilty of an offence under the said Act, and to seize and detain any article which they have reason to believe to be liable to confiscation or forfeiture under the said Act. These officers when they so arrest any person or seize or detain any such article have to forward such person or article without unnecessary delay to the officer in charge of the nearest police station.

Effects of Prohibition.

As prohibition was introduced in the district in gradual stages from 1947-48, a comparison is given of the consumption of liquor and intoxicating drugs in the years 1945-46, 1950-51 (the year in which complete prohibition was enforced) and 1952-53 :—

	1945–46	1950–51	1952–53
Country liquor (in proof gallons) ..	56,948	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
Toddy (in gallons)	13,76,538	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
Beer (in imperial gallons) ..	32	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
Wines (in imperial gallons) ..	6	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
Ganja (in seers)	240	18	9
Bhang (in seers)	18	1	1
Opium (in seers)	01	2	1
Spirits (Superior) (Imported units) ..	11	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
Spirits (Cheap) (Indian units) ..	556	*Nil.*	6

The total revenue, which was Rs. 21,98,674 in 1945-46 was only Rs. 39,763 in 1950-51 and Rs. 10,379 in 1952-53.

Kinds of permits.

Permits of the following kinds are granted for possession, use and consumption of foreign liquor :—

Emergency Permits.

Emergency permit is granted for use or consumption of brandy, rum or champagne to any person for his own use or consumption or to any head of a household for the use of his household for medicinal purpose on emergent occasions. The permit is granted for a period not beyond 31st March next following the date of the commencement of the permit and for a quantity not exceeding 6-2/3 fluid ounces of brandy or rum or 13-1/3 fluid ounces of champagne per six months. A permit is not granted to more than one member of a household at one time. The term 'household' is defined as a group of persons residing and messing jointly as members of one domestic unit.

Health.

A health permit is granted for use or consumption of foreign liquor for a quantity up to the maximum of two units a month to any person who requires such liquor for the preservation or maintenance of his health. The permit may be granted for a quantity

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments. PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

exceeding two units but not more than three units a month if the applicant at the time of making an application is more than 55 years of age, provided :

(*a*) the applicant has made such application within three months of the expiry of the health permit held by him authorising him to consume more than two units* ; and

(*b*) the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board, as the case may be, recommends to such applicant a quantity in excess of two units.

This permit is usually granted for a period not exceeding that recommended by the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board, as the case may be, but such period shall not exceed six months in any case :

Provided that the permit may be granted for a period not exceeding 12 months in the case of persons over 60 years of age.

Temporary Resident's.

Temporary resident's permit is issued to persons born and brought up or domiciled in any foreign country, where liquor is generally used or consumed. No permit is granted for a period beyond 31st March next following the date of its commencement. The permit is granted for such monthly quantity not exceeding four units as the Collector may fix in each case.

Visitor's.

Any person visiting the State for a period of not more than a week and desiring to possess, use and consume foreign liquor has to apply to the Collector. The permit is granted for a period not exceeding one week. The Collector may extend the period of such permit but in no case shall such period be extended to a total period exceeding one month. No permit is granted for a quantity exceeding one unit per week.

Interim.

Any person who is eligible for a permit under rule 63, 64 or 68 of the Bombay Foreign Liquor Rules, 1953 and desires to possess, use or consume foreign liquor may apply to the Collector or any other officer authorised in this behalf for an interim permit while applying for a regular permit under any of the said rules. No such permit is granted for a period exceeding two months. The permit is granted for such monthly quantity of foreign liquor as the Collector may fix ; provided that such quantity shall not in any case exceed two units of foreign liquor per month if the permit holder is not eligible for permit under rule 63 or 64, or four units of foreign liquor per month in other cases except with the sanction of the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

*One unit is equal to 1 quart bottle (of 26-2/3 ozs.) of spirits or 3 quart bottles of wine or 9 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength exceeding 2 per cent. of alcohol by volume, or 27 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength not exceeding 2 per cent. of alcohol by volume.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments. PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

This is issued free to a foreign tourist holding a tourist introduction card or tourist visa. The quantity of foreign liquor granted under this permit is four units per month and the maximum period for which it is granted is one month.

Special for Privileged persons.

This permit is granted to consular officers and the members of the staff appointed by or serving under them, provided that such members are the nationals of a foreign State. It is also granted to their consorts and relatives.

This permit is granted for any quantity of foreign liquors if the permit holder is a Sovereign or Head of Foreign State or his consort. If the permit holder is any other person, the permit is granted for a quantity of foreign liquor not exceeding that which may be fixed by the State Government.

Toddy.

The possession, use, etc., of toddy is totally prohibited.

Denatured Spirit.

The possession and use of denatured spirit is prohibited, except under permit. A permit for possession and use of denatured spirit up to a maximum quantity of two bottles per month is granted for domestic purposes. The possession and use of denatured spirit for medical, industrial, scientific or such similar purposes is also regulated by the system of permits.

Country Liquor and Wine.

Authorisations for the use of country liquor and wine for sacramental purposes only are granted to persons of certain communities, viz. Parsees, Jews and Christians.

Ganja, Bhang and Opium.

A permit for personal consumption of opium, *ganja* or *bhang* is granted only on the production of a medical certificate from the medical board constituted by Government for the purpose. The maximum quantity which may be allowed per month under such permit is 15 tolas in the case of *ganja* and *bhang* and 7½ tolas in the case of opium. A permit can be granted for only one of these drugs.

Use for Industrial purposes etc.

The possession, use, transport, sale, etc., of dangerous drugs are permitted under rules made in this behalf. Similarly, possession, use, sale, etc. of mhowra flowers, molasses, rectified spirit and absolute alcohol are also permitted for industrial, medical and similar purposes under rules made under the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949.

Neera and Palm Products.

The working of the neera and palm products scheme in the pre-reorganisation State of Bombay was entrusted to the Bombay Village Industries Board. The Board is doing the neera and palm gur work either by itself or through co-operative societies or suitable institutions of constructive social workers such as (1) Gandhi Smarak Nidhi,

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

(2) Sarvodaya Centres and (3) Ashrams. The tapping of palm trees, drawing of neera and sale and supply of neera are regulated under licences granted by the Collector under the Bombay Neera Rules, 1951.

Prohibition Committee.

To amalgamate the activities of Government at district level, Government has set up a District Development Board in each district for advising and helping Government in respect of prohibition, rural development, labour-welfare, irrigation, publicity, etc. With the setting up of the District Development Board for the Ratnagiri district, the former District Prohibition Committee has been replaced by a Prohibition Sub-Committee of the District Development Board consisting of ten members. The Chairman of the Sub-Committee is a non-official and the Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise, Ratnagiri is its Secretary. The Sub-Committee consists of eight non-officials and two officials.

Taluka Prohibition Drive Committees.

To make the enforcement of Prohibition more effective, Taluka Prohibition Drive Committees in areas other than Project and National Extension Service areas and Community Development Blocks under the auspices of the District Development Board, Ratnagiri, have been formed. There is such a committee for each Taluka/Mahal in the areas stated above. The Mamlatdar/Mahalkari of the respective Taluka/Mahal is the Chairman of the Committee. The police sub-inspector at the Taluka/Mahal headquarters is secretary of the committee. A representative of the Taluka/Mahal Home Guards organisation is also a member of the committee. The main functions of the Taluka Prohibition Drive Committees are to collect information relating to prohibition offences and to pass it on to the police sub-inspector in charge of the prohibition squad; to assist the police to muster good *panchas*, whenever necessary; to organise the programme for prohibition drive; to study the social and economic conditions of persons engaged in anti-prohibition activities and to suggest to its chairman ameliorative measures for their families so that they may give up their illegal activities and take to alternative employment, etc., and to prepare and maintain the following lists :—

(*a*) list of the villages involved in illicit distillation, transport, possession and sale of liquor,

(*b*) village-wise list of persons or families involved in illicit distillation, transport, possession and sale of liquor;

(*c*) list of persons habituated to drink,

(*d*) list of persons or licensees doing tincture business or selling spirit, french polish, etc. in the areas for misuse as intoxicants.

Special Committees.

For the purpose of assisting in the prohibition propaganda in the Project and National Extension Service areas, special committees of block advisory committees have been constituted. The Social Education Officer of the area is the Secretary of such Committee. These

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

committees have also to deal with the work relating to the enforcement of prohibition as is to be done by the taluka prohibition drive committees, in addition to the prohibition propaganda work.

Sub-Committees of Village Panchayats.

To secure assistance from the village panchayats in prohibition propaganda work they have been directed to form sub-committees. These committees are to be guided in this regard by the Social Education Officer if the villages are in project or national extension service areas and by the district publicity officers and the prohibition and excise staff in other areas. Local officers such as Patils and *Talathis* have to assist and advise these sub-committees in this regard.

Sanskar Kendras.

In January 1959 there were three subsidised *Sanskar Kendras* all of which were run by co-operative societies. The names of those co-operative societies and the gram panchayats are given below :—

Name of Co-operative Society or Gram Panchayat.	Place of Sanskar Kendra.
Multipurpose Co-operative Society, Mirjole.	Mirjole.
Multipurpose Co-operative Society, Pali.	Pali.
Khanu Vividh Karyakari Sahakari Society, Khanu.	Khanu.

SOCIAL WELFARE DEPARTMENT (BACKWARD CLASS WING).

Social Welfare (Backward Class) Organisation.

AT THE MINISTERIAL LEVEL, THE NEW DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE was constituted immediately on reorganisation of States, i.e., since 1st November 1956. It, however, took shape at the Directorate level since 15th September 1957 (*vide* Government Resolution, Labour and Social Welfare Department, No. BCE. 2857-D, dated 23rd September 1957). The backward class welfare work done previously by the Backward Class Department is now done by the Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare Department. The other wing of the Social Welfare Department is the Correctional Wing. The designation of the Director of Backward Class Welfare is now changed to Director of Social Welfare who is the head of the Social Welfare Department of the Maharashtra State. He is assisted by a Joint Director of Social Welfare. The post of the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Institutions is redesignated as Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Wing) and this officer assists the Director of Social Welfare in matters relating to the Correctional Wing. A third post of Deputy Director, has also been created under the Social Welfare Department to look after the work other than backward class welfare and correctional wing. The Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare Department aims at ameliorating the conditions of Backward Classes so that they reach the standards of other privileged sections of the society as quickly as possible.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

SOCIAL WELFARE (Backward Class).

At the district level, the department has district officers now called Social Welfare Officers who are of the status of second grade Mamlatdars. They execute the schemes implemented by the Social Welfare Department and co-ordinate the work of backward class welfare in the district in respect of backward class welfare schemes implemented by the various departments of the State. They are expected to work as a kind of liaison officers between the backward classes and various departments of Government. It is part of their duties to see that the fullest benefit of all legislation enacted by Government is received by the backward classes. They are also expected to see that the backward classes derive the maximum benefit of the concessions sanctioned by Government in any field for the amelioration of the backward classes.

Backward Classes.

Backward classes include the following three categories: (1) The Scheduled Castes or *Harijans*; (2) The Scheduled Tribes or *Adivasis*; and (3) The other Backward Classes, who are neither Scheduled Castes nor Scheduled Tribes but socially, economically and educationally are as backward as the other two categories. The communities coming under the first two categories are notified by the Government of India under the orders of the President for each of the States in the Indian Union. The communities coming under other Backward Classes were recognised by the State Government as per Government Resolution, Labour and Social Welfare Department, No. OBC. 1759-E, dated 18th May 1959. This class of Other Backward Classes based previously on the basis of communities has now been abolished and a new category of Other Backward Classes based on income, i.e., those having annual income of less than Rs. 900 has been created.

It is the policy of Government to ameliorate the conditions of backward classes so as to bring them in line with the other sections of the population. A number of privileges have also been granted to backward classes by the constitution of India and special grants are also being paid every year by Government of India, under article 275(i), for ameliorating the condition of backward classes. Besides normal concessions made available to backward classes from time to time, special schemes have been framed for backward classes by the State Government under the Five-Year Plans and these are being implemented vigorously.

Various Measures of Uplift.

Educational.

The uplift of the Backward Classes is sought to be achieved in many ways. First of all, special facilities are given to them for receiving education. For example, they get free studentships in Government as well as non-Government schools, and scholarships and freeships in arts, science and professional colleges and technical institutions. In higher primary schools and secondary schools a good number of sets of scholarships are reserved for Backward Class students. These scholarships are granted to them on the results of competitive examinations. In addition, the department gives monetary help to poor and deserving students from the Backward Classes, studying in higher primary, secondary, collegiate and technical institutions, by

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. SOCIAL WELFARE. (Backward Class).

way of lump-sum scholarships for the purchase of slates, books, tools, etc. and for payment of examination fees for the Secondary School Certificate and post-Secondary School Certificate Examinations.

Special *ashram* schools for Scheduled Tribes and *sanskar kendras* and *balwadis* are also opened for the spread of education amongst backward classes.

Hostels.

There are four hostels run by the District School Board for backward class pupils which are situated at Lavel, Palshet, Rampur and Palwani. Besides these there are nine other hostels run by the voluntary agencies which are situated at Dapoli, Lanje, Kankavli, Ratnagiri and Kharepatan as shown below :—

LIST OF BACKWARD CLASS HOSTELS MAINTAINED BY VOLUNTARY AGENCIES, RATNAGIRI DISTRICT

Place.		Name of the Hostel and location.
Dapoli	..	(1) Navabharat Chhatralaya, Dapoli.
		(2) Devi Ramabai Ambedkar Vidyarthi Ashram, Dapoli.
Lanje	..	(1) Kale Chhatralaya, Lanje.
		(2) Backward Class Hostel, Lanje.
Kankavli	..	(1) Tulasabai Bhandharkar Hind Chhatralaya, Kankavli.
		(2) Sane Guruji Hind Kanya Ashram, Kankavli.
		(3) Mhalsabai Bhandarkar Hind Chhatralaya, Kankavli.
Kharepatan	..	(1) Appasaheb Patwardhan Backward Class Hostel, Kharepatan.
Ratnagiri	..	(1) Sarvodaya, Chhatralaya, Ratnagiri.

Housing.

Special attention is devoted to provision of housing accommodation for the Backward Classes. The department helps in providing housing sites for members of the Backward Classes by acquiring lands and disposing of the plots to individual members at a nominal occupancy price fixed in consultation with the Collector of the district. Under a Post-War Reconstruction Scheme, Backward Class housing societies are eligible to receive an interest-free loan up to 75 per cent. of the cost of construction limited to Rs. 1,500 in backward areas and Rs. 2,000 in other areas. Government have ordered in the same scheme that free provision should be made of three gunthas of land for a Backward Class family engaged in agricultural pursuits and one-and-a-half gunthas of land for a Backward Class family engaged in non-agricultural pursuits. With a view to breaking down the isolation of Scheduled Caste quarters, Government have also ordered that the houses of Scheduled Castes should be shifted close to the main village sites, waste lands, where available, being granted

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.
SOCIAL WELFARE (Backward Class).

to the Scheduled Castes for housing purposes on payment of reasonable occupancy price. Similar concessions are granted to individual members of Backward Classes where organisation of a Backward Class co-operative housing society is not possible. There are in all four co-operative housing societies of backward class persons established in the district to which Government aid is given. They are given below :—

LIST OF CO-OPERATIVE HOUSING SOCIETIES OF BACKWARD CLASS IN THE DISTRICT

Place.	Name of the co-operative society and location.
Ratnagiri ..	(1) Partavane Backward Class Co-operative Housing Society, Ratnagiri.
	(2) Nawaldevi Backward Class Co-operative Housing Society, Ratnagiri.
Dapoli ..	(1) Backward Class Co-operative Housing Society Ltd., Dapoli.
Lanje ..	(1) Javde Backward Class Co-operative Housing Society Ltd., Lanje.

Economic Regeneration

The economic regeneration of the Backward Classes is promoted by various means. With a view to improving the technique of the hereditary occupations of these classes, Government have sanctioned a number of peripatetic parties for imparting training to them in various industrial subjects. Stipends are granted to students admitted to these classes. Backward Class students are also awarded scholarships for taking industrial training at the various technical and industrial institutions. After training, the Backward Class artisans are encouraged to organise industrial co-operatives and help in the form of loans and subsidies is granted to such societies. Individual Backward Class artisans can also take advantage of similar financial assistance. Co-operative farming societies of Backward Classes also get State help in the form of loans, subsidies, revenue free land for cultivation, etc.

With effect from 1st November 1950, in regard to Class I and Class II posts in the State service, 12 per cent. of vacancies are reserved for Backward Classes as a whole. Vacancies in Class III and Class IV services are reserved for various sections as follows :—

	Class III Services.	Class IV Services.
(*i*) Scheduled Castes ..	6 per cent.	7 per cent.
(*ii*) Scheduled Tribes ..	7 per cent.	9 per cent.
(*iii*) Other Backward Classes ..	9 per cent.	11 per cent.

The maximum age-limits prescribed for appointment to Class III and IV services and posts under the relevant recruitment rules are relaxable by five years in favour of Backward Class candidates.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

SOCIAL WELFARE. (Backward Class). *Social Uplift.*

Measures have been taken to ensure the social uplift of the Backward Classes, especially Harijans. The Bombay Harijan (Removal of Social Disabilities) Act (X of 1946) and the Bombay Harijan Temple Entry Act (XXXV of 1947), as amended in 1948 have been enacted with a view to bringing about the complete removal of untouchability as far as public and civic rights are concerned. The Bombay Devadasis Protection Act (X of 1934), has declared unlawful the performance of any ceremony having the effect of dedicating girls as *devadasis*. These unfortunate girls were usually members of the Backward Classes.

The Social Welfare Department has to see that the policy of Government is fully implemented in day-to-day administration.

Social Welfare.

The activity under this is designed to remove the stigma of untouchability in respect of Scheduled Castes, assimilation of Scheduled Tribes in the general population without destroying their hereditary traits and rehabilitation of Ex-Criminal Tribes and Nomadic and Semi-Nomadic Tribes from among the category of other Backward Classes. Legislation as well as propaganda through voluntary agencies are the means used to achieve this object.

Mention may be made of the Untouchability Offences Act, 1955, passed by the Government of India to stop the practice of observance of untouchability.

With the liberal assistance of the Central Government under Article 275(i) of the Constitution of India, amounting to 50 per cent. of the expenditure by State Government, various measures are taken by the State Government for the uplift of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, *Vimukta Jatis* and Other Backward Classes under the Second Five-Year Plan. These measures are framed after taking into consideration the needs of these sections of Backward Classes and with a view to achieving their economic uplift, settlement and removal of their social disabilities. The Second Five-Year Plan provides for a programme of backward class welfare for which a total outlay of Rs. 4·50 crores has been made. Besides this Government of India has also sponsored on cent. per cent. basis a special programme amounting to Rs. 3·27 crores for the welfare of backward classes in Maharashtra State which includes the opening of seven multipurpose projects in Scheduled Areas of the State, along with other measures for the welfare of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and *Vimukta Jatis*.

In the implementation of these backward class welfare measures, advice and co-operation is also sought from the eminent social workers and voluntary organisations through the State Board for Harijan Welfare, the State Tribes Advisory Council and the District Backward Class Sub-Committees of the District Development Board in each district.

The Charity Commissioner.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Bombay Public Trusts Act.

Prior to 1950, the Religious and Charitable Trusts in the State were governed by various enactments, Central as well as Provincial, based on religion. In 1950, a composite legislation called the Bombay Public Trusts Act (XXIX of 1950) was passed, applicable to all public trusts without distinction of religion. This Act defines 'public trust' as "an express or constructive trust for either a public, religious or charitable purpose or both, and includes a temple, a *math*, a *wakf*, a *dharmada* or any religious or charitable endowment and a society formed either for a religious or charitable purpose or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act (XXI of 1860)".

The State Government is empowered to apply this Act to any public trust or class of public trusts and on such application the provisions of previous Acts cease to apply to such trust or class of trusts. The Act has been made applicable to the following classes of public trusts with effect from 21st January 1952:—

(1) temples;

(2) maths;

(3) wakfs;

(4) public trusts other than (1), (2) and (3) above, created or existing solely for the benefit of any community or communities or any section or sections thereof;

(5) societies formed either for religious or charitable purposes or for both registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860;

(6) *dharmadas*, i.e. any amounts which, according to the custom or usage of any business or trade or agreement between the parties relating to any transaction are charged to any party to the transaction or collected under whatever name as being intended to be used for a charitable or religious purpose; and

(7) all other trusts, express or constructive, for either a public religious or charitable purpose or for both.

The Act has not been made applicable to the charitable endowments vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act (VI of 1890).

The Charity Commissioner with headquarters at Bombay has been appointed to administer the Act. The first Charity Commissioner was appointed on 14th August 1950. An Assistant Charity Commissioner has been appointed for the Kolhapur Region with Kolhapur as headquarters which consists of the districts of Kolhapur, Satara, Sangli and Ratnagiri. The Assistant Charity Commissioner is directly responsible to the Charity Commissioner.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Duties of Trustees.

The Act imposes a duty on the trustee of a public trust to which the Act has been applied to make an application for the registration of the trust within three months of the application of the Act or its creation, giving particulars specified in the Act, which include—(a) the approximate value of moveable and immoveable property owned by the trust, (b) the gross average annual income of the trust property, and (c) the amount of the average annual expenditure of the trust. No registration is, however, necessary in the case of *dharmadas* which are governed by special provisions of the Act in certain respects. Trusts registered under any of the previous Acts are deemed to be registered under this Act.

The following statement furnishes statistics relating to the public trusts from Ratnagiri district till 30th June, 1958.

PUBLIC TRUSTS IN RATNAGIRI DISTRICT.

PROPERTY, INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

Section.	Total No. of trusts registered.	Value of Property		Gross average annual income.	Average annual expenditure.
		Moveable.	Immoveable.		
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
A. (Trusts for the benefit of Hindus)	512	10,30,607·00	28,22,652·00	1,69,439·00	1,10,851·00
B. (Trusts for the benefit of Muslims)	175	26,139·00	3,71,032·00	60,000·00	39,629·00
C. (Trusts for the benefit of Parsees)	....	....	....	....	....
D. (Trusts for the benefit of other communities)	....	....	....	....	....
E. (Trusts for the benefit of any particular community) ..	87	5,01,735·00	3,36,225·00	1,65,808·00	71,452·00
F. (Trusts registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860)	39	10,04,980·00	12,40,599·00	7,66,227·00	3,50,597·00
Total ..	813	25,63,461·00	47,70,508·00	11,61,474·00	5,72,529·00

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

A registration fee ranging from Rs. 3 to Rs. 25 is levied depending on the value of the property of the trust. An annual contribution at the rate of 2 per cent. of the gross annual income is also recovered which is credited to the Public Trusts Administration Fund created under the Act. The contribution does not form part of the general revenues of the State. Public trusts exclusively for the purpose of advancement and propagation of secular education or medical relief and public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 300 or less are exempted from the payment. Deductions from the gross annual income for computing contribution are allowed in respect of amounts spent on the advancement and propagation of secular education, medical relief, donations, grants received from Government or local authorities, interest on depreciation or sinking fund, taxes to be paid to Government or local authority, etc. The contribution is levied on the net annual profits in the case of public trusts conducting a business or trade.

Every trustee has to keep regular accounts of the trust which have to be audited annually by Chartered Accountants or persons authorised under the Act. A Chartered Accountant can audit accounts of any public trust but other persons authorised under the Act are permitted to audit accounts only of public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 1,000 or less. The auditor has to submit a report to the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner of his region on a number of points such as whether accounts are maintained regularly and according to law, whether an inventory has been maintained of the moveables of the public trust, whether any property or funds of the trust have been applied on an object or purpose not authorised by the trust, whether the funds of the trust have been invested or immoveable property alienated contrary to the provisions of the Act, etc.

The public trusts having gross annual income of Rs. 500 or less have, however, been exempted from the provisions of audit on condition that the trustees should prepare and furnish to the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner of the region concerned, a full and true statement of income and expenditure in the forms of Schedules IX-A and IX-B of the Bombay Public Trusts Rules, 1951 duly signed and verified by all the trustees.

If on a consideration of the report of the auditor, or of an officer authorised under section 37, the accounts and explanation, if any, furnished by the trust or any other person concerned, the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner is satisfied that the trustee or any other person has been guilty of gross negligence, breach of trust or misapplication or misconduct resulting in a loss to the trust, he has to report to the Charity Commissioner who, after due inquiry, determines the loss, if any, caused to the trust and surcharges the amount on the person found responsible for it. No sale, mortgage, exchange or gift of any immoveable property and no lease for a period exceeding ten years in the case of agricultural land and three years in

the case of non-agricultural land or building belonging to a public trust is valid without the previous sanction of the Charity Commissioner. The trustee of a public trust is bound to invest the surplus funds of the trust in public securities or first mortgage of immoveable property on certain conditions. For making an investment in any other form, the permission of the Charity Commissioner must be obtained.

Application of funds by *cy-pres.*

If the original object of a public trust fails wholly or partially, if there is surplus income or balance not likely to be utilised, or in the case of a public trust, other than a trust for religious purpose, if it is not in the public interest expedient, practicable, desirable, necessary or proper to carry out, wholly or partially, the original intention of the author of the public trust or the object for which the public trust was created, an application can be made to the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, for application *cy pres* of the property, or income of the property, or income of the public trust or any of its portion.

Suits for Reliefs

If there is a breach of trust or a declaration is necessary that a particular property is the property of a public trust, or a direction is required to recover the possession of such property, or for the administration of any public trust, two or more persons, having an interest in the trust or the Charity Commissioner, can file a suit in the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, to obtain reliefs mentioned in the Act. If the Charity Commissioner refuses his consent to the institution of the suit, an appeal lies to the Bombay, now Maharashtra Revenue Tribunal constituted under the Bombay Revenue Tribunal Act (XII of 1939). The Charity Commissioner can also file such a suit on his own motion.

Charity Commissioner to be Sole Trustee if appointed as Trustee.

The Charity Commissioner may with his consent, be appointed as a trustee of a public trust by a Court or by the author of trust provided his appointment is made as Sole Trustee. The Court is, however, not empowered to appoint the Charity Commissioner as a trustee of a religious public trust. In such cases, the Charity Commissioner may levy administration charges on these trusts as prescribed in the rules framed under the Act.

Enquiries by Assessors.

Enquiries regarding the registration of a public trust or regarding the loss caused to a public trust or public trusts registered under the previous Acts, in consequence of the Act or conduct of a trustee or any other person, have to be conducted with the aid of assessors not less than three and not more than five in number. The assessors have to be selected, as far as possible, from the religious denomination of the public trust to which the inquiry relates. The presence of assessors can, however, be dispensed with in inquiries where there is no contest. A list of assessors has to be prepared and published in the *Official Gazette* every three years.

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. CHARITY COMMISSIONER. Charity Commissioner and Charitable Endowments.

The Charity Commissioner is deemed to be and to have always been the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for the State appointed under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890.

Punishment.

Contraventions of the Act amount to offences and are punishable with maximum fines ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 depending on the nature of contravention. The Charity Commissioner is the sole authority for launching prosecutions in the case of such contraventions.

COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE

COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE. Origin.

In the First Five-Year Plan (1951-56), the Planning Commission of the Government of India proposed organisation of "Community Development Projects" and "National Extension Service" to initiate a process of improvement of social and economic life in the villages. These are being co-operatively implemented by the Union and the State Governments. The principal aim is to mobilise local dormant man-power for a concerted and co-ordinated effort at raising the level of rural life as a whole. Both the "National Extension Service" and the "Community Development" programmes envisage development in the fields of agriculture, animal husbandry, public health, social education, co-operation, communications, etc. in selected areas. In the areas of Community Development Projects Blocks, constructional programme is more intensive than in the National Extension Service areas. In the latter, the main objective is to bring about administrative re-organisation.

Plan.

Each block, whether of the Community Development or National Extension Service category, covers a population of approximately 66,000. The budget provided for a Community Development block is 15 lakhs of rupees for a period of three years, while the cost of a National Extension Service block is seven and a half lakhs of rupees. National Extension Service blocks are intended to spread over the whole country by the end of the Second Five-Year Plan, and approximately half the number of these blocks will, on the basis of their performance, be converted into Community Development blocks. For the first three years the State Governments will receive substantial financial help from the Central Government. After the first three years the financial liability for maintaining the development achieved in the selected area will devolve mainly upon the State Governments.

Administrative Machinery.

Special administrative machinery has been set up at the headquarters of the State Governments and at lower levels to avoid delay in departmental routine. In the Maharashtra State the Development Commissioner, who is also the Secretary to Government, Co-operation and Rural Development department, has been made responsible for the control and supervision of the programme. The Development Commissioner is assisted by an Additional Development Commissioner. A committee known as the State Development Committee,

consisting of the Chief Minister (as Chairman) and Ministers in charge of Finance, Public Works, Revenue and Agriculture, Forests and Co-operation, has also been set up. The Chief Secretary and Secretaries, Finance, Revenue, Agriculture and Public Works Departments are also members of this committee. The functions of the State Committee are to lay down broad policies and provide general supervision in respect of the implementation of the programme.

In the case of a Community Development block, the Prant Officer (Assistant or Deputy Collector), in whose charge the block area falls, has been appointed *ex-officio* Project Officer for the development block. This arrangement not only avoids duplication of agencies but also ensures rapid development and economy in expenditure. The Project Officer, by virtue of his position as a Revenue Officer, is in a position to exert considerable healthy influence upon the villagers in their endeavour for social and economic development.

At the district and taluka levels, committees known as 'District Community Development/National Extension Service Advisory Committee' and 'Taluka Community Development/National Extension Service Advisory Committee' have been set up to look after and tender advice in connection with the working of the programme. The committees consist of both officials connected with the programme as also non-officials. To aid and advise the Prant-*cum*-Project Officers in the task of all-round development, subject matter specialists like Agricultural Officers, Assistant District Co-operative Officers, Social Education Organisers, Deputy Engineers, Overseers, etc. have been appointed. Considerable delegation of powers has been made to Collectors, Prant-*cum-Project* Officers, etc. by way of decentralisation of powers, which necessarily avoids departmental routine and delay in the execution of the programme.

Gram Sevaks.

The lowest but the most important link in the chain of the administrative machinery devised for this development programme is the *Gram Sevak* who works in close contact with the villagers. A new cadre of *Gram Sevaks* (village level workers) has been formed by pooling the existing personnel of the Revenue, Co-operative and Agricultural departments, working at the level of group of villages in the block area. On appointment these *Gram Sevaks* perform revenue as well as extension duties. They are Circle Inspectors, Agricultural Assistants and Co-operative Supervisors, all in one. The *talathis* in charge of villages are designated as Assistant *Gram Sevaks*. The functions which the village level worker has to perform are of very great importance. He has to understand rural problems and the psychology of the farmer and offer solutions to his various difficulties. He has to find out the felt needs of the people and the solutions that he offers have to be demonstrated by working in close co-operation with the farmers. His success depends on the extent to which he gains the confidence of the farmers.

(G.C.P.) L-B Vf 4174—45

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE. *Gram Sevikas*

Gram Sevikas have been appointed in stage I and II blocks to work amongst women and children. Their duties are similar to those of *Gram Sevaks* but restricted to activities which promote the welfare of women and children. These *Gram Sevikas* work under the supervision and guidance of the *Mukhya Sevika* (Lady Social Education Organiser).

The various administrative departments and heads of departments have been directed to assign very high priority to matters relating to project works. In the district, the Collector, as the Chairman of the Advisory Committee, is also expected to bring about proper co-ordination in the work of the various development departments functioning in the project area.

Association of People.

The aim of the programme is community development and it can only take place when people themselves evince a keen interest in the programme. To this end people are sought to be associated as much as is possible with the planning of development schemes and their execution. While schemes involving large expenditure and requiring a high degree of technical skill are to be executed departmentally, other schemes are to be executed with as much co-operation as is possible from local agencies such as the District Local Board, Village Panchayats, etc., or, in the last resort by *ad hoc* committees formed of representatives of the villages.

Public Contributions.

To ensure people's participation in the development programme it has been laid down that various schemes or works are to be taken up on the basis of public contribution. The Collectors and Project Officers approve schemes only when minimum popular contributions are forthcoming. There is no limit to the maximum popular contribution which can even be cent. per cent. The scales of minimum popular contributions vary according to the nature of the schemes. Contributions may be in the form of cash, labour or materials. For schemes of irrigation the minimum contribution fixed is 33 per cent.; for drinking water wells 25 per cent.; for roads 33 per cent.; for school buildings 33 per cent.; for dispensaries or hospitals 25 per cent. of capital cost, and for community recreation centres and library buildings 50 per cent. of capital cost.

For certain reasons, mainly administrative, it was not considered desirable to have in this State separate and scattered units covering a population of 66,000 persons each and to style such units as National Extension Service blocks. It was considered that National Extension blocks should be made co-extensive with the limits of talukas and that such talukas, depending on their population, be considered as comprising one or more blocks for purposes of financial allotment.

Work in the District.

In the district, the Community Development programme was first introduced in 1953, by opening of a Community Development Block in Mandangad-Dapoli, on 2nd October 1953. It covered the whole

of Mandangad Taluka and 25 villages of Dapoli Taluka. This block reverted to post-intensive stage on 2nd October 1956 after completing successfully its Community Development Block stage. Mandangad block entered Stage II with effect from 1st April 1958. The position of development blocks under different categories as on 1st May 1960 is as under :—

There are 13 development blocks of the Community Project Area pattern in Ratnagiri District, as mentioned below :—

Serial No.	Name of Block.	Date of inauguration.	C.P.A. pattern blocks allotted.	Budget provision for the block period (Rs.).
1	2	3	4	5
		I. *Stage I Development Blocks.*		
1	Khed ..	.. 1st May 1956 ..	2	24,00,000
2	Dapoli ..	.. 2nd October 1956.	1½	18,00,000
3	Ratnagiri ..	.. 1st April 1957 ..	2	24,00,000
4	Sangameshwar	.. 2nd October 1957.	2¼	27,00,000
5	Sawantwadi ..	.. 1st April 1958 ..	1¾	21,00,000
6	Kudal ..	.. 1st April 1960 ..	1½	18,00,000
		II. *Stage II Development Blocks.*		
7	Mandangad ..	.. 2nd October 1956.	1	1 lac per year.
		III. *Pre-extension Blocks.*		
8	Vengurla ..	.. 1st April 1959 ..	1	21,200
		IV. *State's Pre-extension Blocks.*		
9	Chiplun ..	.. 2nd October 1959.	2½	32,600
10	Guhagar ..	.. 2nd October 1959.	1½	24,600
11	Malvan ..	.. 2nd October 1959.	2	29,200
12	Kankavli ..	. 1st April 1960 ..	1	21,200
13	Deogad ..	.. 1st April 1960 ..	1	21,200

Kudal block was in pre-extension stage up to 1st April 1960 and has been converted into Stage I with effect from 1st April 1960.

The following talukas and mahals in this district are yet to be covered by development blocks.

(1) Rajapur Taluka.

(2) Lanje Mahal.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE.

The expenditure position of the Stage I and Stage II blocks as on 1st May 1960 is as under :—

Serial No.	Name of Block.	Total budget provision (Rs.)	Expenditure incurred (in Rs.) up to 1-5-1960.
1	Khed, Stage I block	24 lacs	13,68,490
2	Dapoli, Stage I block	18 lacs	9,70,115
3	Sangameshwar, Stage I block .	27 lacs	10,44,485
4	Ratnagiri, Stage I block	24 lacs.	10,63,833
5	Sawantwadi, Stage I block .. .	21 lacs	5,88,105
6	Kudal, Stage I block ..	18 lacs	28,975
7	Mandangad, Stage II block ..	1 lac per year	9,58 140

Agriculture.

(i) *Irrigation and Reclamation*.—There is no scope for irrigation in this district. The loanable provision available under these items is, therefore, mainly utilised for granting loans for conversion of *varkas* lands into paddy lands by levelling and constructing bunds etc. In Dapoli, Khed and Sangameshwar blocks there was a demand for loans for this purpose. In Khed block, loans to the extent of Rs. 1,62,000 have been advanced to the cultivators.

The works of small *bandharas* have been taken up in the development blocks mentioned below :—

Serial No.	Name of block.	No. of works.	Estimated cost (Rs.)
1	Ratnagiri, Stage I block	4	21,884
2	Sawantwadi, Stage I block	2	11,838

(ii) *Horticulture*.—There is much scope for horticultural development in this district. The major portion of provision available according to the schematic budget under the heads, "Irrigation and Reclamation" has therefore, been earmarked in Stage I block for granting loans to cultivators for mango and cashewnut plantations. The horticulture scheme involving financial provision as shown below has already been sanctioned by Government.

Serial No.	Name of block.	Amount provided (Rs.)
1	Dapoli	3,20,000
2	Khed	3,00,000
3	Sangameshwar	3,30,000
4	Ratnagiri	4,00,000
5	Sawantwadi	1,00,000
	Total ..	14,50,000

Out of the total loanable provision of Rs. 26,60,500 available under the heads, "Irrigation and Reclamation" in Mandangad, Dapoli, Khed, Sangameshwar, Ratnagiri and Sawantwadi block, loans amounting to Rs. 16,63,104 have been advanced to the cultivators up to 1st May 1960 for conversion of *Varkas* lands into paddy lands, mango and cashew plantations etc. The Blockwise figures of loans advanced up to 1st May 1960 are as under :—

Sr. No.	Name of block.	Provision made.	Loans advanced upto 1-5-1960.
1.	Mandangad	22,000 for one year	29,150
2.	Dapoli	4,75,000 for block period	3,34,990
3.	Khed	4,80,000 Do.	4,79,515
4.	Sangameshwar	3,40,000 Do.	2,75,049
5.	Ratnagiri	6,56,000 Do.	3,30,350
6.	Sawantwadi	6,82,500 Do.	2,14,050
	Total	26,55,500	Total .. 16,63,104

Area of about 20,000 acres has so far been brought under mango and cashew plantation in all the Stage I and II blocks.

An area of about 42,200 acres has been taken up for construction of bunds, levelling, etc. and for conversion of *varkas* land into paddy lands in all the above development blocks.

(*iii*) *Paddy Pilot Scheme*.—The below mentioned talukas and mahals have been included in the paddy pilot scheme and talukawise targets have been fixed.

(*i*) *Chiplun Paddy Pilot block*.

Sr. No.	Name of Taluka.	Target in Acres.
1	Dapoli	3,000
2	Khed	3,000
3	Chiplun	4,000
4	Guhagar	1,000
5	Sangameshwar	5,000
	Total	16,000

(*ii*) *Sawantwadi*.

Sr. No.	Name of Taluka.	Target in Acres.
6	Sawantwadi	5,000
7	Kudal	10,000
	Total	15,000

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE.

Agriculture.

In addition to these targets, it has been decided to implement the scheme in Mandangad, Ratnagiri, Vengurla and Malvan blocks The targets for these blocks are as under :—

Sr. No.	Name of Taluka.	Target in Acres.
8	Mandangad	500
9	Ratnagiri	2,500
10	Vengurla	2,000
11	Malvan	3,000
	Total ..	8,000

Paddy Pilot Scheme was introduced in the district during 1958-59.

(iv) *Cashewnut Development Scheme.*—In addition to horticultural development schemes taken up in Stage I Blocks from the Block funds, the cashewnut development scheme of the Agricultural Department has been taken up for implementation in the entire Ratnagiri district. The following targets have been fixed for this scheme :—

Sr. No.	Name of Taluka	Area proposed to be covered (Acres).
1	Dapoli	8,000
2	Khed	4,000
3	Mandangad	2,000
4	Chiplun	5,000
5	Guhagar	1,000
6	Deorukh	10,000
7	Ratnagiri	8,000
8	Sawantwadi	8,000
9	Kudal	1,000
10	Malvan	5,000
11	Vengurla	2,000
	Total ..	54,000

The Director of Agriculture had placed at the disposal of the mamlatdars/mahalkaris amounts as detailed below for granting loans under this scheme for the period ending 31st March 1960.

Chiplun	15,000
Guhagar	6,000
Vengurla	10,000
Kudal	10,000
Total ..	41,000

Loans have been advanced to cultivators for the development of cashew plantation.

CHAPTER 17.

Welfare Departments.

COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE.

Education, Health and Welfare.

The people in all the blocks are particularly eager to have new primary school buildings and drinking water wells constructed in the villages. Popular contributions are easily made available by the villagers and/or by their societies in Bombay. The grant-in-aid works taken up in State I and Stage II Blocks in this district belong mainly to the following categories :—

1. Primary school buildings of 1 to 5 rooms.
2. Drinking water wells.
3. Samaj Mandirs (at Mandangad, Dapoli and Deorukh).
4. Veterinary Aid Centres.
5. Causeways.
6. Kaccha roads.
7. Jetties (in Mandangad and Khed blocks).

The progress in general, under the heads, 'Education and Health and Rural Sanitation' in all Stage I and Stage II Blocks is satisfactory. The major item under the head, 'Health and Rural Sanitation' is establishment of primary health centres in Stage I Development Blocks. The Government have so far sanctioned primary health centres in the following blocks.

(1) Ratnagiri State I block	..	Two primary health centres *viz* at (1) Kotawada and (2) Pawas (with six sub-centres).
(2) Khed, Stage I Block	..	Two primary health centres *viz.* at (1) Wave, T. Khed, and (2) Talen (with six sub-centres.).
(3) Dapoli, Stage 1 Block	.	One primary health centre *viz.* at Dabhol with three sub-centres.

Of these five primary health centres, the two primary health centres *viz.* at Kotawada in Ratnagiri Block and at Wave, T. Khed in Khed Block have started functioning.

The schemes for establishment of three primary health centres with nine sub-centres in Sangameshwar Stage I Block and two primary health centres with six sub-centres in Sawantwadi Stage I Block have been submitted to Government for approval.

Rural Crafts and Industries.

Rural Arts, Crafts and Industries.—Different training schemes have been taken up for implementation under this head, in Stage I and Stage II Blocks in the district. Training schools of the categories

CHAPTER 17. — Welfare Departments. COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE. Rural Crafts and Industries.

mentioned below are at present functioning in the blocks in this district.

Sr. No.	Name of the training School	Block in which functioning.
1	Leather working school ..	Sangameshwar. Khed. Dapoli.
2	Tailoring school	Mandangad. Khed. Sangameshwar.
3	Weaving school	Sangameshwar.
4	Carpentry and smithy school ..	Khed. Ratnagiri. Sangameshwar.
5	Tanning Instructors to the Tanners' Society	Khed.
6	Village Pottery works school ..	Khed. Ratnagiri. Sawantwadi. Sangameshwar.
7	Cane and Bamboo Works school ..	Sawantwadi.
8	Coir works school	Ratnagiri.

Trainees from block areas take advantage of these schemes. Each trainee receives monthly stipend of Rs. 20 during training period. Societies of trainees are being formed in each block, and steps to give loans to the trainees to enable them to pursue the trades in rural areas are also taken.

Housing.

Housing.—It is observed generally in all the blocks that the people are reluctant to take loans for rural housing. There is thus no scope for utilising the provision for rural housing However, loans have been advanced in Khed, Sangameshwar and Ratnagiri blocks during the last two months for carrying out repairs to the houses in rural areas.

CHAPTER XVIII—MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION. Organisation.

The Maharashtra State has an independent Town Planning and Valuation Department under the administrative control of the Local Self-Government and Public Health Department. This department came into existence in 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government as its head. The department principally deals with two important subjects, *viz.* town planning and valuation of real property.

Functions of the Department.

The duties and functions of this department as stipulated by the Government are to educate municipalities regarding advantages of town planning and preparation of development plans and town planning schemes under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954, to advise municipalities in the selection of suitable areas for preparation of town planning schemes; to give the required assistance to municipalities in the preparation of development plans and town planning schemes by offering advice, lending technical assistance, etc. in the preparation of draft town planning schemes; to perform duties of the town planning officer when so appointed by Government, to scrutinise building permission cases, to tender advice to the Board of Appeal and to draw up final schemes; to issue certificate of tenure and title to the owners of lands included in town planning schemes; to advise the Government on all matters regarding town and country planning including legislation; to advise and prepare town development, improvement, extension and slum clearance schemes under the Municipal Acts; to prepare development schemes or lay-outs of lands belonging to the Government or to co-operative housing societies and private bodies with the sanction of the Government; to advise officers concerned in respect of village planning and preparation of layouts for model villages, etc.; to advise Government on housing, slum clearance, regional planning and prevention of ribbon development including legislation; to prepare type designs for the housing of middle and poorer classes including the Harijans; to scrutinise miscellaneous building permission cases and layouts received from the Collectors; and to recommend suitable building regulations for adoption in the areas concerned.

CHAPTER 18.

Miscellaneous Departments.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

The Consulting Surveyor to Government is the chief expert adviser of the Government on this subject and his duties under this heading include: (1) Valuations of agricultural and non-agricultural lands and properties in towns and villages belonging to Government and intended for the purposes of sale or lease. (2) Valuations of Government properties for purposes of rating under the Municipal Acts. (3) Valuations for miscellaneous purposes such as cantonment leases, probate or stamp duty, etc. (4) Valuations for the purposes of fixing standard rates of non-agricultural assessment and prescribing zones of values in all villages and rising localities in the vicinity of important and growing towns. (5) Valuations for the purposes of fixing standard table of ground rents and land values in respect of lands in cantonments. (6) Scrutiny of awards of compensation (as received from Government). (7) Supplying trained technical assistants to do duty as special land acquisition officers in important towns where the land acquisition work is of a very important and responsible nature. (8) Giving expert evidence when called upon to do so in District Courts and High Court when appeals are lodged against awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act. (9) Undertaking valuation work on behalf of railways and other departments of the Central Government and private bodies with the sanction of Government on payment of fees, etc. (10) Among other duties are: to advise various heads of the Government departments in the selection of sites required for public purpose; to see that all town planning schemes or layout schemes sanctioned by the Government have been properly executed within a reasonable period or periods fixed therein; to advise the Government as regards interpretation, amendment or addition to the Bombay Town Planning Act or rules thereunder, etc.

The department was started in 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government as its head who was later on assisted by one Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government, one Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government and two Senior Assistants with the requisite staff. As the activities of this department increased, these Assistants had to be posted at prominent places in the State to attend to the work of town and country planning very essentially required in and around towns and cities. There has been a tremendous increase in the activities of this department in recent years with the consequential increase in the number of branch offices in the State. The head office of this department is stationed at Poona while branch offices are placed at Bombay, Kolhapur, Kalyan, Nagpur, Amravati and Aurangabad. Some of the officers have been appointed to function as Land Acquisition Officers. There is one full-time Special Land Acquisition Officer, at Poona. In addition to two part-time Land Acquisition Officers one each at Bombay and Poona, one full-time Land Acquisition Officer functions at Bombay.

CHAPTER 18.

Miscellaneous Departments.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

The statutory powers regarding planning embodied in the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915, have been replaced by the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. This Act generally incorporates the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915 and in addition makes obligatory on every local authority (barring village panchayats) to prepare a development plan for the area within its jurisdiction and submit it for the sanction of the State Government. The development plan would aim at the improvement of existing congested *gaothan* portion of town and make proposals in respect of outlying open areas so as to guide the development on planned basis. The proposals of the development plan can be implemented by the preparation of statutory town planning schemes. In preparing town planning schemes, the planner can ignore to a great extent existing plot boundaries. In designing his lay-out, existing holdings can be reconstituted and made subservient to the plan and building plots of good shape and frontage can be allotted to owners of lands which might be ill-shaped for building purposes and without access. The cost of a scheme can be recovered from the owner benefited, not exceeding 50 per cent. of the increase in the value of the land estimated to accrue by the carrying out of the works contemplated in the schemes. When a draft town planning scheme prepared by a local authority in consultation with the owners is sanctioned, a town planning officer is appointed. His duties among others are to hear each owner individually, consider objections or proposals and make suitable adjustments or amendments in the draft scheme proposals, if found necessary.

Most of the local authorities have no technical staff of their own to prepare a development plan and it has been decided that this department should prepare development plans on behalf of local authorities under the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. Accordingly the scheme for preparation of development plans has been provided in the Second Five-Year Plan and the additional staff sanctioned for this purpose.

The Ratnagiri municipality has in view preparation of a town planning scheme for its area which is in the process of development. But the proposal could not materialise as Ratnagiri Town had not been surveyed till 1958. The work of city survey is in progress and on its completion the municipality will be properly advised to undertake the work of preparing the town planning scheme.

There is no branch office of this department in the district and the work received from Government, Collector or local bodies, etc. is being dealt with by the branch office of this department at Kolhapur, by deputing an assistant if so necessary.

DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY.

DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY. District Publicity Officer.

The Ratnagiri district has a District Publicity Officer in charge of the District Publicity Office stationed at Ratnagiri. He acts as a link between the Government officers and the press in the district.

CHAPTER 18. Miscellaneous Departments. DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY.

By keeping himself in touch with the officers of the various departments in the district, he issues to the press, news-items, write-ups, etc. and disseminates factual information on schemes and activities of the Government in the district. He also arranges press visits and press conferences to provide an opportunity to the press to get first hand knowledge of the subject to be covered. Similarly, he acts as a correspondent at the district level and covers programmes and functions arranged by the Government such as ministerial tours, press conferences, etc. He often delivers lectures to the audience explaining Government policy and programmes.

A mobile publicity van fitted with 16 mm. cine-equipment is put in charge of the District Publicity Officer, who takes it round the villages of the district and provides free film shows for the benefit of villagers. The films exhibited are mostly documentaries on various nation-building subjects including agriculture, cattle improvement, health, village industries, education, civil duties, Five-Year Plans, etc. The films for exhibition are mostly produced by the Directorate of Publicity, while a few of them are borrowed from the Films Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting Government of India and other film-producing agencies.

PUBLICITY SUB-COMMITTEE OF DISTRICT DEVELOPMENT BOARD.

The office of District Publicity Officer, Ratnagiri, is under the supervision of the Regional Publicity Officer, Bombay. The Collector of the District and the Publicity Sub-Committee of the District Development Board also aid and advise him in his work. Some members of the Committee including the Chairman (who is Vice-Chairman of the Board) accompany the van and deliver talks in villages on nation-building subjects

Besides these activities, the Directorate has an Information Centre under the supervision of the District Publicity Officer, Ratnagiri. The Centre, fully equipped with charts, models, exhibits, etc. serves as a useful medium of explaining to the people of the district, the progress of various schemes and projects under the Five-Year Plan.

RURAL BROADCASTING.

At present about 65 villages in the Ratnagiri district have been provided with radio receiving sets under the Contributory Scheme of Community Listening. Under this scheme, a village desirous of having a radio set is required to pay Rs. 175 as installation contribution and Rs. 60 per year as maintenance contribution.

The installation and maintenance of radio sets is carried out by the Rural Broadcasting District Headquarters at Ratnagiri. A Supervisor is in charge of the Rural Broadcasting District Headquarters Ratnagiri, which is fully equipped with radio service meters, testing equipments, etc. to carry out the necessary repairs to the radio sets. The Supervisor is assisted by two battery peons. A departmental motor vehicle is stationed at Rural Broadcasting district headquarters.

Ratnagiri, for the transport of radio sets, allied accessories and staff to and from the villages in connection with the installation and maintenance of radio sets in the district.

The community receivers installed in the villages are specially designed for the purpose and a majority of these receivers are battery-operated. The receivers are regularly maintained and discharged batteries replaced by new ones Suitable reply-paid post cards are provided to villagers to enable them to intimate any breakdown or defect in the working of radio sets installed there, without incurrence of additional expenditure to them. The radio sets are installed in public places such as the village panchayat office, the village chowki, the village library, etc.

ADMINISTRATION OF MANAGED ESTATES.

MANAGED ESTATES.

On many occasions, Government takes over administration of estates of minors, lunatics and persons incapable of managing their own property. There are two pieces of legislation in operation which govern such administration. One is the Bombay Act, *viz.* the Court of Wards Act (I of 1905), and the other is the Central Act, *viz.* the Guardians and Wards Act (VIII of 1890). The idea in administering the estates of minors and lunatics is to secure proper care and management of the estates concerned. In the case of persons incapable of managing their own property, assumption of superintendence of the estate is undertaken only when the estate is encumbered with debt or mismanaged or when there is no one capable of taking proper care of it and where the Government may be of opinion that it is expedient in the public interest to preserve the property of the person for the benefit of his family, provided that the property is of such value that economical management by the Government agency is practicable.

Court of Wards Act.

Under the Bombay Court of Wards Act, the Collector of Ratnagiri is the Court of Wards for the limits of his district. The State Government has, however, powers to appoint, in lieu of the Collector, either a special officer or a board consisting of two or more officers to be the Court of Wards. Delegation of the powers of the Court of Wards to the Assistant or Deputy Collector is provided for. The Court of Wards is empowered, with the previous sanction of the State Government, to assume the superintendence of the property of any landholder or of any pension holder who is "disqualified to manage his own property" Those who are deemed to be disqualified are: (a) minors, (b) females declared by the District Court to be unfitted to manage their own property; (c) persons declared by the District Court to be incapable of managing or unfitted to manage their own property, and (d) persons adjudged by a competent Civil Court to be of unsound mind and incapable of managing their affairs. The Court of Wards cannot, however, assume superintendence of the

CHAPTER 18.

Miscellaneous Departments.

MANAGED ESTATES.

property of any minor for the management of whose property a guardian has been appointed by will or other instrument or under Section 7(*1*) of the Guardians and Wards Act.

In Ratnagiri district, the Mamlatdar of Sawantwadi manages the estates taken over under the Court of Wards Act. The powers have been delegated to the District Deputy Collector, Sawantwadi Division, as per sub-section (3) of section 19 of the Court of Wards Act, 1905, with effect from 1957 onwards, as a proper check can be exercised over the management of the estates and over the maintenance of accounts. A *talathi* from the permanent establishment has been appointed to work under the Mamlatdar, to whom he is directly responsible in the discharge of his duties. His work is supervised by the Mamlatdar, Sawantwadi. His work consists only of recovering dues of the estates during the recovery season. All payments, suspensions and remissions regarding estates are made by the Mamlatdar, Sawantwadi. Disposals of the properties are also made by the Mamlatdar with the necessary permission of District Deputy Collector and the Government. When management of private estates is assumed, the cost of management is made recoverable from the parties.

Guardians and Wards Act.

The Central Act. *viz.* the Guardians and Wards Act, 1890, applies to the estates of minors with the same provisions as contained in the Bombay Court of Wards Act. Under the Central Act, the District Court appoints a guardian who may be an officer of the Court, a relative of the ward or the Collector. According to Government R. D. Resolution No. 2521/49, dated 4th September 1953, the work pertaining to the management of minor's estates has been entrusted to the Collector.

When the Collector, Ratnagiri, took over estates from the District Judge, Ratnagiri, there were 33 estates for management. Out of these estates, 17 have been released by the Collector, minors having attained majority. Thus there are 16 estates managed by the Collector. An *awal karkun*, who is an employee from the permanent establishment of the Collector, is appointed for managing these estates.

In 1957-58, the total gross income of all the estates under the Guardians and Wards Act, 1890 was Rs. 3.246·90 nP. and the total expenditure worked out to Rs. 5,704·47 nP. The total gross income of all the estates under the Court of Wards Act, 1905 was Rs. 2,539 and the total expenditure worked out to Rs. 2,223.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

ORIGIN, GROWTH AND DIRECTION.

CHAPTER XIX—VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS.

THE HUMANITARIAN URGE TO ORGANISE VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS to serve a social purpose is found in the people of almost all the districts and Ratnagiri is no exception to it. In Ratnagiri district there are a number of voluntary institutions serving the social needs of the people in a variety of ways. They not only complement and supplement governmental efforts in many a field, but also cover fields of ameliorative service which even today Government may not have been able to cover. These institutions have played an important part in the educational, social and cultural development of the district. Many of them were pioneers in particular spheres of social activity and on account of their constant and commendable service have won Government recognition, assistance and guidance.

Moreover, the existence of a large number of voluntary social service organisations in a city gives a richness to its institutional life which mere Governmental action can never impart. Government too have increasingly recognised this aspect and have encouraged and utilised the agency of these institutions for the greater effectiveness of their own efforts. Thus State and voluntary organisations have been playing a mutually helpful part in the development of the district. Education, medical aid, uplift of women, encouragement to literature, etc. have been among the subjects to which attention is paid by selfless and patriotic workers.

The Ratnagiri Nagar Wachanalaya which marked the beginning of the establishment of voluntary organisations to serve a social purpose was established at Ratnagiri as early as in 1828. This was followed by many institutions serving the social needs of the people in a variety of ways.

Most of these institutions have chosen to work in the field of education. The Patwardhan High School was established at Ratnagiri in 1902. It was at that time a middle school with three standards. It became a High School in 1936. In 1947, this institution was taken over by the Bharat Shikshan Samaj which was established with that view only. Afterwards many institutions came to be

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service

established with the object of promoting primary, secondary, commercial and technical education according to the needs and requirements of the people.

ORIGIN, GROWTH AND DIRECTION.

With the increasing importance of modern education the need for the preservation of ancient lore and philosophy also began to be more and more keenly felt. The Sanskrit Pathashalottejak Nidhi was established at Rajapur as early as in 1889 to impart instruction in *Vedas* and *Shastras* and to conduct and affiliate schools for the purpose.

There were other fields of social service to which the attention of people was also directed. With a view to collect books in different languages and to make them available to the readers and to conduct reading rooms many institutions came to be established such as the Lokmanya Tilak Smarak Wachan Mandir at Chiplun which was established in 1864; the Nagar Wachan Mandir, Malvan, in 1906; the Ratnagiri Nagar Wachanalaya, Ratnagiri, in 1828 and the Shri Ram Wachan Mandir and Kreeda Bhuvan, Sawantwadi, in 1852.

For the normal social and cultural needs of the community a variety of voluntary organisations have thus been formed in the district of Ratnagiri. In the pages that follow the significant features of some of the important institutions working in the district are briefly indicated.

The primary responsibility for bringing about moral and material advancement of a society lies mainly on its Government. But Government effort is also largely supplemented by the efforts of social institutions and public-spirited individuals. The urge to organise a voluntary association to serve a social purpose comes naturally to many persons. In Ratnagiri district such persons seem to have come forward to give a concrete shape to this urge since the beginning of this century. A large number of social service institutions have come into existence during this period. But many of them are still struggling to get recognition. The purpose of this chapter is to give a *resume* of those institutions which have attained a fair degree of stability and importance and are doing useful social service.

EDUCATION. Bharat Shikshan Mandal.

The Bharat Shikshan Mandal, Ratnagiri, was established in 1947 to spread primary, secondary, industrial and scientific education mainly among the children in this district by starting, conducting, affiliating and managing institutions for the purpose. The membership of the Mandal consists of six classes *viz*. (1) benefactors; (2) patrons; (3) fellows; (4) well-wishers; (5) ordinary members and (6) purse donors (for the Keshavrao Purse Fund). They all constitute the general body (24 members in 1957). For the management of the affairs of the Mandal there are two bodies, (*i*) the Managing Council and (ii) the Governing Board. The Council is represented by 11 elected members from the general body (including a chairman, vice-chairman, two trustees and a treasurer) heads of the institutions,

Bharat Shikshan Mandal.

secretary and two life workers (i.e. members accepted as such according to rules). It continues in office for a period of three years. The Governing Board consists of not less than nine members amongst whom are: (a) the chairman, (b) the vice-chairman, (c) one of the trustees, (d) the treasurer, (e) two members from the council, (f) heads of the institutions run by the Mandal and (g) secretary and one life worker. The Board makes recommendations to the Council for the smooth working of the Mandal and its institutions.

The Mandal runs at Ratnagiri, the Patwardhan High School which is considered to be one of the best managed high schools and looks after schools in the whole of the district. The Patwardhan High School is one of the oldest educational institutions in the district. It was established in 1902 as a middle school with three standards. It became a high school in 1936. In 1947 the Bharat Shikshan Mandal was started to take over this institution. One of the activities of the school which needs particular mention is the running of Kala Vihar Mandal where members are elected by the pupils. It carries out various extra-curricular activities (e.g. dramatics, exhibitions. magazines, etc.) under the guidance of teachers.

The funds of the Mandal consist mainly of Government grants and fees collected from the pupils. Its annual budget is of the order of Rs. 58,000.

Dapoli Education Society.

The Dapoli Education Society, Dapoli, was established in 1928 to facilitate education by starting, acquiring, affiliating or incorporating, at different places in Dapoli taluka, schools under private management or by any other ways best adapted to the needs of the people. The Society consists of five classes of members, *viz.* (1) patrons; (2) donors; (3) fellows; (4) ordinary members; and (5) sympathisers. There were 633 members on March 31, 1956.

It has a president, and two vice-presidents (one senior and the other junior) who are elected every five years by the general body. For the management of all matters relating to the Society, there are four bodies, *viz.* (1) the Council · (2) the Governing Body; (3) the Trustees and (4) the Advisory Board. The Council consists of 15 members (three from amongst patrons, donors and fellows). It is elected every five years at the annual general meeting of the Society and has its own chairman and vice-chairman. It looks after the general supervision of the Society and also nominates the Advisory Board and elects the Governing Body. The Governing Body consists of five members (including its chairman, vice-chairman and secretary) and has a tenure of five years. It is mainly concerned with the administration and supervision of the institutions run by the society. It also has control over all current and permanent funds sanctioned by the Council in the budget. The president has full powers to revise or modify any of the decisions of the Council

CHAPTER 19. — Voluntary Social Service EDUCATION. Dapoli Education Society.

except where the decision of the Council is arrived at by at least 2/3 majority of the members of the council. Its decision can be revised or modified only by the general body. The Society has two Trustees elected by the general body from amongst the members for six years to look after its properties. The Advisory Board nominated by the Council consists of eminent persons.

The Society conducts a full-fledged high school *viz.*, Alfred Gadney High School, at Dapoli. In fact it came into existence because of the decision taken by the P. G. Mission (that is, the Society for the Propagation of Gospels) to close down its school which was established as far back in 1879. The Society subsequently took it over in 1928. The high school has one boarding attached to it and accommodates about 75 students. There were 481 students on the roll on 31st March 1957. The school has provision for physical training, Auxiliary Cadet Corps, Boy Scouts, etc. The Society's assets on 31st March 1957 were of the order of 1,79,718 and consisted of lands and buildings, investments, etc. Its income was Rs. 63,942 as against the expenditure of Rs. 60,014.

Vyapari Paisa Fund Society.

The Vyapari Paisa Fund Society, Sangameshwar, came into existence in 1937 to promote secondary education and commercial education according to the needs and requirements of the taluka. Membership (15 in 1957) of the society is of five kinds, *viz.* (1) patrons; (2) life members; (3) benefactors; (4) well-wishers and (5) ordinary members. The affairs of the society and the institutions managed by it are looked after by a managing board which consists of 11 members elected by the general body every three years. There is also a schools committee which has five members (three board members and two others, who may be outsiders, usually experts). Its functions and powers are more or less of that of a sub-committee appointed by the Board; it supervises the working of the schools of the society. The society runs a high school at Sangameshwar known as the Paisa Fund English School. The assets of the society in 1957 were worth about Rs. 22,000. Its annual income and expenditure is of the order of Rs. 4,000.

Kankavli Bhag Education Society.

The Kankavli Bhag Education Society, Kankavli, was established in 1928 to start and run educational institutions such as secondary schools, industrial schools, agricultural schools, etc. at Kankavli and adjoining areas. It consists of patrons, benefactors, life members, sympathisers and ordinary members. They all constitute the general body. All matters connected with the Society are managed by the (1) Governing Body; (2) Managing Committee; (3) Trustees; (4) School Committee and (5) Bombay Committee. The general body elects, at the general meeting, (1) the president, (2) the vice-president, (3) one secretary, (4) one joint secretary, (5) one treasurer and four members of the Managing Committee. All of them hold office for three years. The Governing Body supervises the work of the Managing Committee. It consists of five members representing the first three classes, three representing resident

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service

EDUCATION.

Kankavli Bhag Education Society.

members in Bombay and two representing Kankavli Bhag. They cannot hold office on any other body. The Committee's office is situated in Bombay. The Managing Committee consists of the chairman, vice-chairman, secretary, joint secretary, treasurer and six other members out of whom four are elected by the General Body and two by the Bombay Committee. The Managing Committee does overall supervision over the activities of the society. The Society has three trustees who are elected by the General Body and are in the sole charge of immoveable properties of the society. The School Committee consists of the chairman of the Managing Committee, heads of the institutions run by the Society and two members from the Managing Committee. It looks after the Society's institutions under the direction of the Managing Committee. The Bombay Committee consists of 15 members who are elected by the resident members of Bombay from amongst themselves at an annual general meeting which is held in Bombay. The main work of the Bombay Committee is to carry on propaganda and collect funds for the cause of the Society. It is conducting at present a high school at Kankavli. The Society's assets, annual income and expenditure were Rs. 18,291, Rs. 28,000 and Rs. 30,000 respectively in 1957.

Karachi Maharashtriya Shikshan Prasarak Mandal.

The Karachi Maharashtriya Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Kudal, is a cosmopolitan educational institution and has been carrying on its educational activities ever since its inception in 1929 when Shri Shivaji High School was started in Karachi. In 1948, the Mandal was obliged to migrate to Bombay on account of partition of the country. Its affairs are looked after by a Council of Management which is at present (1957) conducting Kudal High School, Kudal. This school received an ancillary grant of Rs. 12,500 from the Government of India. It also received grants of Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 2,000 from Rehabilitation Department and Government of of India in 1955 and 1956, respectively. The school has its own generator to produce electricity. The school also conducts classes for examinations in Hindi. Outsiders can also take advantage of the facility. Another novel feature of the school is its free boarding house in which poor pupils are admitted provided they contribute some physical labour. Besides, there is an Auxiliary Cadet Corps Unit and Boy Scouts and Girl Guides organisation. This school is also a centre for the National Discipline Scheme of the Government of India.

Makhjan Panchakroshi Shikshan Prasarak Mandal.

The Makhjan Panchakroshi Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Makhjan, was started in 1921 to spread education either by newly establishing or taking up the management of already working educational institutions with a view to spreading primary, secondary and industrial education. Excepting the annual members, all the members of the Mandal are life members which is composed of benefactors, well-wishers, patrons, special members and ordinary members. The

Makhjan Pancha-kroshi Shikshan Prasarak Mandal.

management of the Mandal vests in the president, vice-president, Advisory Board, Executive Council, Managing Board, treasurer and secretary. They have a tenure of three years. The mandal has two advisory boards, one local and the other at Bombay. This Board advises the Executive Council regarding the working of the Mandal. The Council consists of the vice-president (who is the *ex-officio* chairman), the treasurer, the secretary of the Mandal and 16 representatives of the members residing in Bombay. It is in charge of the day-to-day working of the Mandal and its institutions. The Managing Board consists of five members of whom three are nominated by the Council and one by the local advisory board; the head of the institution is the *ex-officio* member. This board looks after the institutions of the Mandal and makes recommendations to, and obtains necessary sanctions from, the Council for the satisfactory working of these institutions. At present (1956-57) the Makhjan English School, Makhjan, is being run under the auspices of the Mandal. There were 200 students on the roll. The school has an association of past students. The Mandal is running what is called the Krishna Bhavan Vidhyarthi Vasatigriha. There is also a Poor Boys' Fund to help needy and poor students in the school. In 1956-57, the Mandal had assets worth about Rs. 70,000 and consisted of lands and buildings, investments, furniture, etc. Its receipts amounted to Rs. 27,859 while payments were of the order of Rs. 20,895.

Malvan Education Society.

The Malvan Education Society, Malvan, was established in 1911 with a view to instruct, maintain and manage the Anant Shivaji Desai Topiwalla High School at Malvan and to promote education. The Society is registered under the Society's Act of 1860 and also under the Bombay Public Trusts Act of 1950. It consists of hereditary members, life members, ordinary members, honorary members and the members and the president of the Board of Trustees of Anant Shivaji Desai Fund. There were 59 members of the society in 1957. The Inspector of Education of the district who is the *ex-officio* member of the Board of Trustees of the Fund is the *ex-officio* President of the Society. Its management is looked after by a Managing Board comprising the members of the Board of Trustees of the Fund, five nominees of the President, three representatives of the hereditary members, two representatives of active life members and the head master of the high school. The head master is also the *ex-officio* secretary of the Managing Board. It is elected every three years, though its chairman is elected by its members from amongst themselves every year. It looks after the general supervision of the Society and the high school. In addition to the high school it also runs a primary school. The high school conducts special classes for (1) High School Scholarship Examinations; (2) Hindi Examinations (three only); (3) Sanskrit Examination of Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth, Poona and (4) Elementary and Intermediate Drawing Grade Examinations.

The society's receipts and payments were of the order of Rs. 63,132 and Rs. 44,249 respectively in 1956-57.

EDUCATION.

Parshuram Education Society.

The Parshuram Education Society, Chiplun, came into existence in 1918 to spread and facilitate education by starting, affiliating and incorporating institutions for giving instructions in the various recognised departments of knowledge.

The society consists of patrons, vice-patrons, fellows and ordinary members and they together constitute the general body. There were 363 members in 1957. The affairs of the society are managed by (1) the Council; (2) the Governing Body; (3) the Trustees and (4) Representatives of the permanent teachers. The Council consists of fifteen members *viz.*, (i) five representatives of the Board of permanent teachers; (ii) ten members elected at the general meeting of whom eight must have passed at least one examination of a recognised university or institute. The Council has a tenure of three years and looks after the general supervision and management of the Society. The Governing Body has to look after the Institutions run by the Society. It consists of the chairman and a vice-chairman of the Council (who are also *ex-officio* chairman and vice-chairman of the Governing Body), three permanent teachers sitting on the Council, four members elected by the Council, and a nominee of Chiplun Municipality. The governing body is elected at the end of every third year. There are two Trustees of the Society who are appointed every third year by the General Body. The Trustees are in the charge of Society's properties and permanent funds. All the permanent teachers in the institution of the society constitute the Board of Permanent Teachers and elect from amongst themselves their representatives for the Council. They have to arrange for the collection of funds (and maintain their accounts) for the Society and prepare the annual budget for each of the Society's institutions and submit it to the Governing Body. The Society has been running United English School Chiplun. There were 618 students in 1956-57 (479 boys and 139 girls). Its property consisted of land and buildings, furniture and other investments (worth Rs. 2,71,131); its income was Rs. 66,467 as against an expenditure Rs. 71,688.

Rajapur Shikshan Prasarak Mandal.

The Rajapur Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Rajapur, was originally established in 1924 with the object of taking over the management of the Rajapur High School, an institution which was started as far back as in 1890. The aims and objects of the Mandal are: (i) starting and conducting schools and colleges; and (ii) incorporating, managing and affiliating institutions engaged in the spread of education, primary, secondary, commercial and technical. The institution is registered under the Public Trusts Act, 1950.

There are five classes of membership, *viz.*, (i) patrons; (ii) fellows; (iii) ordinary members; (iv) life members and (v) retired life members. They together constitute the Mandal and numbered about 250 in 1956-57. For the management of its affairs the Mandal has (a) an Advisory Board, (b) Governing Council and (c) a Board

CHAPTER 10.
——
Voluntary Social Service
EDUCATION.
Rajapur Shikshan Prasarak Mandal.

of Life Members. The Advisory Board is to advise the Governing Council on all matters of policy and administration and it is obligatory on the Council to abide by this advise. The Governing Council consists of the life members (elected by Life Members' Board) and six members (of which one must be a woman) elected by the General Body. Heads of the institutions run by the Mandal are *ex-officio* members of the Council. The tenure of the Council is for three years. It is responsible for the day-to-day administration of the institutions owned or run by the Mandal. The number of members of the Board of Life Members is between three and five. The duty of this Board is mainly to make recommendations through the Council regarding the efficient running of all the institutions

Rajapur Shikshan Prasarak Mandal runs the Rajapur High School, Rajapur. This school was originally started with 30 pupils and had three standards. Since 1912 it is being run as a full-fledged high school. Diversified courses in (1) agriculture, (2) commerce, and (3) fine arts were gradually introduced and for that reason it is considered as a pioneer multi-purpose high school. The Mandal also conducts at Rajapur a Basic Training College which prepares primary teachers for Primary Teachers' Certificate Examination. Both these institutions are provided with hostel accommodation at moderate charges. Besides, the Mandal imparts instructions even to outsiders in carpentry, tailoring, painting, music, shorthand and typewriting.

The assets of the Mandal were worth about Rs. 2,25,000 and included lands, buildings, furniture, books, etc. Its annual income and expenditure were of the order of Rs. 1,40,000 and Rs. 1,35,000 respectively.

Ratnagiri Education Society.

The Ratnagiri Education Society, Ratnagiri, was established in 1933. It stands for the spread of primary, secondary, and collegiate education in all branches—arts, science, commerce, medical, legal, technical and industrial—by starting, maintaining, managing, conducting, affiliating or incorporating institutions, schools and colleges without any distinction of sex, caste, creed, class or community. It also aims at providing instruction by means of lectures, post-graduate courses, publication of literature, magazines, periodicals, etc. All the affairs of the Society are looked after by the Managing Council, Advisory Committee and Governing Body. Properties of the society are looked after by a Board of Trustees. The Board of Life Members is concerned with the general problems of all the institutions of the Society and makes recommendations to the Governing Body in regard to their solution.

A glance over the Society's progress since 1933 shows that the Society has been struggling hard for educational progress of South Konkan. At present (1959) it conducts three institutions, all in Ratnagiri town. (1) Mahila Vidyalaya, which is concerned with

Ratnagiri Education Society.

girls' education, was established in 1925. Taking it over was one of the objects before the society when the society came into being. (2) R. P. Gogate College was established in 1945. It is affiliated to the University of Poona and prepares students for B.A. and B.Sc. degrees. It also provides hostel accommodation for students. (3) R. B. Shirke High School came into being in 1949. Originally the name of this school was Tutorial English School. It provides coaching in commercial subjects, such as shorthand and typewriting. There is also one Commerce Institute attached to the school and coaching for the Government Diploma in Commerce and Government Commerce Certificate is given.

The assets of the society by 31st March 1957 were worth more than Rs. 7,00,000 and comprised lands, building, laboratory, library, furniture, etc.

Sanskrit Pathshalottejak Nidhi.

Shri Sanskrit Pathshalottejak Nidhi, Rajapur, was established in 1889 to impart teaching in *Vedas*, and *Shastras* and to conduct and affiliate schools for the purpose. Spreading of knowledge by lectures. discussions, magazines, publication of books, etc. is also one of the objectives of this institution. For the management of its affairs, the institution has (1) the Board of Management, (2) the Executive and (3) the Board of Trustees. At present a Sanskrit Pathshala is conducted under its auspices at Rajapur. Till 1957 about 400 students had studied literature, *Vendanta*, *Ayurveda*, etc. in this school. It also has a collection of rare books and manuscripts. A charitable dispensary is being run under the auspices of the Nidhi where treatment is given free of charge.

Sawantwadi Education Society.

The Sawantwadi Education Society, Sawantwadi, was established in 1934 with a view to establishing schools in the town of Sawantwadi and spreading education by feasible means. It consists of life workers and supporters. Supporters are of five kinds, *viz.* (1) hereditary members, (2) patrons, (3) benefactors, (4) well-wishers and (5) life members. For the management of its affairs, there is a Managing Committee consisting of 14 members (including two trustees) and the hereditary members. The tenure of the office of the committee is three years. The office-bearers of the society are elected every year by the members of the Committee from amongst themselves. The Committee looks after the management and supervision of the society and the institutions run by it. The Board of Trustees consists of two members who are elected for life at the first general meeting of the Society. The society's permanent fund and other properties are registered in the name of these trustees. There is also the Board of Life Workers. This includes those workers of the society and its institutions who have dedicated their life to the service of the society. Every school has such a Board which is also duly represented in the Managing Committee. The head of the institution is the *ex-officio* chairman of the Board.

CHAPTER 19. — Voluntary Social Service EDUCATION. Sawantwadi Education Society.

The Board of life members of every school is concerned with the general supervision and smooth working of that particular institution.

At present the society is conducting Kelsulkar English School which was started in 1901. Taking over this school was also one of the objects of the society when it was established. In its schools instruction is imparted both for secondary and primary standards. These schools also conduct coaching classes for Shrimati Nathibai Damodar Thakarsi Uuniversity and Poona University (External) degree examinations. Special coaching for students appearing for the examinations conducted by Maharashtra Bhasha Sabha, Tilak Vidyapeeth and Marathi Sahitya Sangh are also held. The society owns four buildings. Its annual income and expenditure are of the order of Rs. 42,000.

Shikshan Prasarak Mandal.

The Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Deorukh, was established in 1927 to spread primary, secondary, industrial, commercial and technical education in the taluka of Sangameshwar and for that matter start, conduct, manage, affiliate and incorporate educational institutions. The Mandal consists of patrons, life members, ordinary members and life workers. It has a Managing Board which looks after the day-to-day affairs of the Mandal such as, supervision of schools etc. The Governing Council is the sanctioning authority and consists of the president of the Mandal, vice-presidents, three representatives of patrons, five representatives of life members, seven of ordinary members and a representative of the heads of the institutions run by the Mandal. At least ten members of the Governing Council are required to be residents of Bombay. The Managing Board and the Governing Council are elected every three years. In the case of difference of opinion between the Board and the Council, President's decision is final and the Board must implement it. At present the Mandal runs the New English School at Deorukh which was a middle school till 1938. Its strength was 300 in 1957. The Mandal had property worth about Rs. 74,000 invested in schools, buildings, furniture, library, etc. Its income and expenditure were of the order of Rs. 31,235 in that year.

Vengurla Education Society.

The Vengurla Education Society, Vengurla, came into existence in 1926 to facilitate and promote the spread of education by conducting, starting, affiliating or incorporating schools and educational institutions. The society consists of patrons, fellows and members. It has a president, three vice-presidents (of whom one must be a resident of Vengurla), a secretary (who is also the secretary of the Managing Committee), a treasurer (who must be a resident of Vengurla), and two auditors. The Managing Committee is composed of (i) the treasurer of the society, (ii) ten members elected at the general meeting, (iii) representative of Vengurla Municipality and headmaster (*ex-officio* secretary with no voting power). The Managing Committee has a chairman and vice-chairman of its own.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service

EDUCATION.

Vengurla Education Society.

The Society nominates the Advisory Board of not more than 11 members who are eminent persons to give advice on all matters referred to it by the Managing Committee or by the society. Its advice is binding on the Committee. When there is a difference of opinion the society's decision shall be final. All the office bearers and the Committee are elected for three years. The Committee looks after the general administration and management. The society has been conducting the George English High School since 1926. The name of the school was changed to R. K. Patkar High School in 1948. In 1955 Shri Mangesh Vidyalaya, a high school, conducted by another society in Vengurla was taken over by R. K. Patkar High School. In 1957 there were 575 students. This school is accommodated in the society's own building, has its own library and a big playground. The investments of the society were of the order of Rs. 11,600 in 1956-57, the income from which is utilised for giving prizes, scholarships, etc. The society's income and expenditure as on 31st March 1957 stood at Rs. 15,924 and Rs. 15,673 respectively.

Vidya Mandir.

The Vidya Mandir, Vengurla, was established in 1941 to foster the growth of education, culture and knowledge among the public by opening, maintaining and affiliating schools. To strive for women's education is also one of the important objects before the society. It consists of patrons, fellows, and life members. Contribution is accepted in the form of movable or immovable property. Those who render substantial service to the Mandir are eligible to become honorary members on the recommendation of the Managing Committee. There were 162 members on the society's register in 1957. Its day-to-day working is in the hands of a Managing Committee consisting of nine members including a representative of the Vengurla Municipality nominated by the general body. It is elected by the general body and holds office for three years. The president and vice-president of the Mandir are elected by the general body. At present the society runs the Vidya Mandir Kanya Shala which was established in 1941. The head master of the Kanya Shala is the *ex-officio* secretary of the society and the Committee, without any voting power. Receipts and payments of the society amounted to Rs. 8,871 and Rs. 7,942 respectively in 1956-57.

Women's Education Society.

The Women's Education Society, Malvan, came into existence in 1918 to take over the management of the girls high school at Malvan. The object before the society is to start, conduct and manage educational institutions principally for women and to make efforts in all possible ways for the spread of education among women. It was subsequently registered under the Society's Registration Act, 1860 and Bombay Public Trusts Act, 1950. Its membership is of three kinds, *viz*. patrons, benefactors and well-wishers. There were 500 members in 1957. Its affairs are managed by a Managing Committee. At present the society is running Lakshmibai Topiwalla

CHAPTER 19. — Voluntary Social Service EDUCATION. Women's Education Society.

Kanya Shala, the Suneetadevi Motiram Desai Training College for Women and a primary school which is attached to the training college as a practising school. In 1957, the society had land and buildings worth about Rs. 1,44,000. Its annual income is about Rs. 51,000 as against the expenditure of Rs. 55,000. The deficit is generally met by collecting donations etc.

LIBRARIES. Lokmanya Tilak Smarak Wachan Mandir.

The Lokmanya Tilak Smarak Wachan Mandir, Chiplun, was established in 1864 as the Native General Library but was renamed in 1938. The Mandir was started with the object of conducting a library and a free reading room. Membership is open to all. Members of the Wachan Mandir constitute the general body which elects a Managing Committee of not more than seven members, including the secretary. The Managing Committee has a tenure of one year. The Mandir in 1957 had on its roll 120 members. It also arranges lectures of eminent persons on various subjects. At present it is working as Taluka Library and is recognised as such by the Government. The properties and assets of the Mandal (worth Rs. 18,166 on 31st March 1956) consisted of buildings, investments, furniture and fixtures, books, etc. Its income and expenditure in that year were Rs. 2,119 and Rs. 1,786 respectively.

Nagar Wachan Mandir.

The Nagar Wachan Mandir, Malvan, was started in 1906 to inculcate and foster taste for knowledge among the people of the town by running a library. The membership of the Mandir consists of life members, benefactors and well-wishers. The Mandir is looked after by a Managing Committee of 11 members which includes the chairman, vice-chairman, one treasurer, secretary and assistant secretary. The Mandir is at present running a library and a reading room. There is separate membership for the library and the reading room. The number of books on its register in 1956-57 was worth about Rs. 39,000. Its assets consisted of land, buildings, books, furniture, etc. Its receipts and payments were Rs. 2,402 and Rs. 2,376 respectively in the same year.

Ratnagiri Nagar Wachanalaya.

The Ratnagiri Nagar Wachanalaya, Ratnagiri was established in 1828 to collect books in Marathi, English, Sanskrit and Hindi and make them available to readers and conduct a reading room. There are four classes of membership depending upon monthly subscription Every member has to pay an initial deposit of Rs. 3. The day-to-day affairs of the Wachanalaya are looked after by a Managing Committee consisting of seven members including (chairman and two secretaries). The general body (number of members 541 in 1957) elects the Managing Committee every year. Its assets were worth about Rs. 79,352 in that year; income and expenditure were respectively Rs. 7,639 and Rs. 7,376.

Shri Ram Wachan Mandir and Kreeda Bhavan.

The Shri Ram Wachan Mandir and Kreeda Bhavan, Sawantwadi, was established in 1852 to spread knowledge among the public by making available to the members of the organisation books, periodicals, etc. and make provision for playing Indian and foreign games

Shri Ram Wachan Mandir and Kreeda Bhavan.

LIBRARIES.

and thereby inculcate in them love for sports. The society has on its roll patrons, benefactors, life members and ordinary members (of five kinds). There is also separate provision for reading specified newspapers during working hours of the library. Also, on payment of Re. 1 every year outside subscribers can also take advantage of this facility for about a month during their stay in Sawantwadi. All the members referred to above constitute the general body which elects a president, the Managing Body and the auditor. The chairman, secretary, and joint secretaries are also elected by the general body. Its properties and assets in 1957 consisted of investments, furniture and fixtures, books, etc. Its income in that year was Rs. 4,213 and expenditure Rs. 3,991.

MATERNITY HOMES.

Rani Jankibaisaheb Maternity Home.

The Rani Jankibaisaheb Maternity Home, Sawantwadi, was established in 1928 with the object of running an up-to-date and well-equipped maternity home for the subjects of former Sawantwadi State and the adjoining areas, at lowest possible cost. It has also as its object, welfare of the women and their children. The maternity home has five kinds of helpers *viz.*, (1) patrons; (2) vice-patrons; (3) supporters; (4) donors; and (5) life members. Its office bearers are (1) the president; (2) the vice-president; (3) the trustees; (4) the treasurer and (5) three secretaries. Management is in the hands of a Board of Management, the president, two Trustees, one representative of the patrons, eight other elected members and three Bombay Government nominees. Local Self-Government bodies which contribute to the funds of the Home, also have their representation on this Board. The Board has a tenure of two years. Rani Saheb of former Sawantwadi State is the permanent president. The trustees are appointed for their life time. The Managing Board has to look after general supervision. In 1955-56 the total number of admissions amounted to 1,124. Since 1950 this institution has also been conducting classes in midwifery, preparing lady students for the examination conducted by the State Nursing Council. The facilities of the Maternity Home are also extended to the wives of retired soldiers and their dependents at negligible cost. Since 1955 the Board is conducting a department of Nursing where surgical operations are arranged. The assets of the maternity home in 1955-56 were of the order of Rs. 1,89,363 and consisted of lands and buildings, furniture, instruments, etc. Its income and expenditure amounted to Rs. 36,742 and Rs. 36,862 respectively.

Jubilee Ante-Maternity Care and Baby Welfare Society.

The Jubilee Ante-Maternity Care and Baby Welfare Society, Sawantwadi, was established in 1937 to advise for the welfare of babies up to three years and expectant mothers. Its area of operation is mainly Sawantwadi proper. The society is in fact an adjunct of the Rani Jankibaisaheb Maternity Home, though it has its separate funds and separate account. The office bearers of the Maternity Home are also the office bearers of the society. The trustees are also common for both.

CHAPTER 19.

Voluntary Social Service

LIBRARIES.

Shri Ram Wachan Mandir and Kreeda Bhavan.

Dharma Sevashram.

The Dharmasevashram, Deorukh, was founded in 1943 with the object of spreading knowledge and giving education to the people to make them better citizens. The management of the Ashram is vested in the (1) General Body, (2) Governing Body and (3) Managing Committee. The Governing Body consists of nine members *viz.*, the president, three founder-members and five ordinary members. This body is elected after every five years, and looks after the management and supervision of the Ashram's affairs and properties. The managing committee also remains in office for a period of five years and consists of seven members elected by the general body. This body is directly concerned with the day-to-day affairs of the Ashram. Those persons who are willing to dedicate their life for working for the Ashram can be appointed as life members by the founder-members. Properties of the Ashram are in the charge of the trustees. The Ashram is at present conducting (1) Shri Samartha Gurukul and (2) a Boarding for students, both at Deorukh. Receipts and payments of the Ashram as on 31st December 1956 were of the order of Rs. 5,200.

Ratnagiri Jilha Khadi Sangh.

The Ratnagiri Jilha Khadi Sangh, Gopuri, was established in 1939 to produce *Khadi*, give training in its production, to encourage village industries and work for rural development in general. Membership is open to all the persons who are above eighteen years of age, provided they are regular *khadi* users and they agree to contribute every month a specified quantity of yarn spun by themselves. There were 42 members in 1957-58. The affairs of the Sangh are managed by a nine-member managing committee which has a tenure of three years. The Committee elects its own office-bearers.

The Sangh conducts classes in weaving, technology and gives training in *ambar charkha*. Besides, it is running centres for the skinning of dead animals at different villages according to the needs of the season and a Village Industries Soap Centre. The Sangh also runs the following *charmalayas*: (1) Gorakshan Charmalaya, Ratnagiri, (2) Gandhi Charmalaya, Sakharpa (3) Sangameshwar Charmalaya and (4) Gorakshan Charmalaya, Deorukh. Then, there is the Gopuri Ashram which is working under the auspices of the Sangh. The Ashram came into being in 1948. It propagates the use of town compost for manuring by giving demonstrations etc. Propaganda is also carried for the avoidance of waste of any kind of refuse which can be later on turned into valuable compost manure. The Ashram also conducts a tannery where only dead animals are skinned; bones are also crushed for being used as manure. Besides this the Ashram engages itself in rural development activities of a varied nature.

The annual income of the Sangh is of the order of Rs. 25,000; it receives regular grants from the Khadi Commission for running the tanneries, soap centres and *Ambar Charkha* training centre. Its annual expenditure is of the order of Rs. 29,000 and consists of expenses incurred in running the tanneries, *goshalas*, etc.

PART VI.

CHAPTER 20–PLACES OF INTEREST.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

ACHARE.

Ācharē (Mālvaṇ Taluka, 17° 05′ N, 73° 55′ E. p. 5,648), a village and port on the small creek of the same name, lies on the north-west boundary of Mālvaṇ taluka about ten miles north of Mālvaṇ. The nearest railway station, Kolhāpūr, is 92 miles to the north-east.

Ācharē was, in 1555, the scene of a Portuguese victory over Bijāpūr troops.[1] In 1819, the year after its capture by British forces, it was in every way unimportant.[2] Its chief object of interest is the Rāmeshvara temple. The temple is still in a good condition. Repairs have been made from time to time. The principal building, enclosed by a stone wall and surrounded by a paved courtyard, measures sixty-three feet by thirty-eight, and besides the shrine, has a large rest-house for Hindus. A fair, held yearly on Rāmnavamī in *Chaitra* (March-April), is attended by about 4,000 people from the neighbouring villages. The village revenues, amounting yearly to Rs. 2,500 were by a grant of Shambhū Mahārāj of Kolhāpūr, in 1742 set apart for the support of the temple. The whole village is now an *inām* given to the temple by the Government. Out of the total revenue collected from the village, 88 per cent. is used for the management of the temple and the remainder is taken over by Government. In the river near Ācharē sections of slate beds are exposed. These, not hitherto worked, are probably of some economic value. A china clay or kaolin capable of being used for pottery and sand useful in glass manufacture is also found in and about the village. The fine white sandstones freely exposed in the neighbourhood are locally used as whetstones.

ADE.

Ādē (Dāpoli T. 18° 00′ N, 73° 20′ E., p. 2,065), on a small rather deep creek three miles south of Keḷshī is populated mainly by fishermen. In 1819 it was a port with small trade in corn and fish.[3] It is now of no importance. There is a small temple of Bhārgavarāma. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 116 miles to the south-east.

ADIVARE.

Āḍivarē (Rājāpūr T.; 16° 40′ N. 73° 20′ E); a village twelve miles west of Rājāpūr has a well-known temple dedicated to Mahākālī. From the second to tenth day of the first fortnight of

[1] De Coutto, VII. 169, in Nairne's Konkan, 43.

[2] Malvan Resident, 31st May 1819; Bom. Rev. Diaries 141 of 1819, 2311.

[3] Collector to Gov. 15th July 1819; Bombay Rev. Diaries, 142 of 1819, 2573.

CHAPTER 20. — Places.

Ashvin (September-October), a fair is held in her honour. Petty shops are opened. About 3,000 persons attend the fair.

ADUR.

Adūr or Boryā (Guhāgar T.; 17° 20′ N, 73° 10′ E; p. 3,644), is a minor port mid-way between the mouths of the Vāsishṭhī and the Shāstrī rivers. Protected by the bold and conspicuous headland of Aḍūr 360 feet above sea level, it is a safe anchorage during northerly gales. In former years it was a place of call for coasting steamers.

The volume of goods traffic that passed through the port in 1954-55 and 1955-56 is given below :—

	Imports (tons)	Exports (tons)
1954-55	714	226
1955-56	866	142

On the top of the hill, overlooking the bay, is a trigonometrical survey station. Close by to the north is a temple of Durgādevī. Situated on a high plateau it commands the sea and gives a clear view into it for many miles. Of late this site is becoming popular as a picnic spot. All big vessels anchor at a distance of 200 feet from the jetti constructed in the year 1959.

AKERI.

Ākerī (Sāvantvāḍī T.; 15° 55′ N, 73° 45′ E); about six miles north-west of Vāḍī, formerly a fortified post of some consequence,[1] has a yearly fair on the 14th of *Māgh Vadya* (January-February), when about 10,000 people assemble and drag a cart, *rath,* round the temple. Goods worth Rs. 20,000 are bought and sold at the time of the fair. There is a quarry of hard, purple or slate-coloured stone much used for building. It has a post office.

AMBOLGAD FORT.

Ambolgaḍ Fort (Rājāpūr T.); on the bay at the north entrance of the Rājāpūr river, raised very little above sea level and with a ditch on the north and west sides, covers an area of a quarter of an acre. In 1818 the fort surrendered to the British forces. There is no water. The walls and bastions of the fort are now ruined.

AMBOLI.

Āmbolī (Sāvantvāḍī T.; 15° 55′ N, 73° 55′ E, p. 1,954), about thirteen miles north-east of Sāvantvāḍī is a sanatorium for Belgaum and Sāvantvāḍī. The nearest railway station is Belgaum, 77 miles to the south-east. Āmbolī stands 2,300 feet above the coastal plain and enjoys good, cool and invigorating climate in summer. Laterite stone is found in the vicinity in abundance and forms good and cheap material for building purposes. The soil is rich in bauxite. Honey is obtained from the forest area. There is a bee keeping centre in the village.

Government water works constructed on the river Hiraṇyakeshī supplies water to the village. There are about 30 Points and other places of interest at this hill station, prominent among which are Mahādevgaḍ, Nārāyaṇgaḍ, Nutt Point, Khemrāj Point and Sāvantvāḍī View.

[1] It was unsuccessfully attacked by the Kolhāpūr Chief in 1783 and successfully defended by Phonḍ Sāvant III. in 1805.

Attempts were made in the past to develop this village into a hill-station and health resort. During the former Sāvantvāḍī State regime, Āmbolī used to be its summer capital.

ANJANVEL.

Añjanvel (Guhagar T., 17° 30′ N, 73° 05′ E ; p. 1,847), a village with an old fort in a ruinous state stands on the south shore of the entrance to the Vāsishṭhi or Dābhoḷ river, to which also it gives the name Añjanvel. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 110 miles to the south-east. Under the Marāṭhās, Añjanvel was the headquarters of a district administered by a *subhedār*.[1] In 1819, as a consequence of the British annexation of Marāṭhā territory, the headquarters were removed to Guhāgar and Añjanvel fell into insignificance thereafter. The river mouth, about a mile broad, is narrowed by a sandbank,[2] that from the north runs within two cables length of the south shore, where on the edge of a plateau 300 feet high is the ancient temple of Tāḷakeshvar. On the bar at low tide are ten feet of water with, at springs, a rise of ten feet. From its exposed position there is generally a swell.[3] There is a lighthouse at the entrance of the harbour. The port gives good anchorage during the fair weather to vessels passing to and from Chipḷūṇ. The custom house at the entrance to the harbour, and a rest-house are the only public buildings. Coasting steamers used to call at Añjanvel, but the place of call for them is now the more sheltered port of Dābhoḷ, two miles higher up the river on the north bank. Weaving is the only industry.

Añjanvel fort, called Gopaḷgaḍ, was built by the Bijāpūr kings in the sixteenth century, strengthened by Shivājī about 1660,[4] and improved by his son Sambhājī (1681-89). In 1699, the fort was attacked and captured by Khairāt Khān, Habshī of Jañjirā (1680-1708), who added the lower fort, Paḍkoṭ.[5] In 1744 (December), Tuḷājī Angre Sarkhel took it from the Habshī, and naming it Gopaḷgaḍ, added the upper fort, *Bālekoṭ*. From him, in 1755, it passed to the Peshvā,[6] and on the Peshvā's overthrow, fell to British forces on the 17th May 1818.[7] The fort stands on a prominent and commanding point on the

---

[1] Nairne's MS

[2] Before the commencement of the South-West monsoon winds, the river bed at the mouth of the river has a depth enough to allow big vessels up the river. But during rainy season due to powerful winds sand in the river-bed accumulates to form a sand bar across the mouth of the river. Rushing waves make the water rise over the bund and a roaring sound is made.

[3] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 387.

[4] Some Persian verses on a flat oblong stone give the date 1707 and the Builder's name Sidi Saat. The verses are : Whoever built a new mansion, when he was called away, did it not belong to another ? God is immortal and all else subject to death. When the kind king, the light of the world, gave the order, the fort was made, which he could not live to see. Sidi Saat (built) the fort. Written on the 10th of *Zil Hajj*, the first year of the reign, *Hijri* 1119 (A. D. 1707).

[5] Jervis' Konkan, 92.

[6] Nairne's Konkan, 92.

[7] Nairne's Konkan, 116 : Service Record of H.M's XXIst Regiment N.I. (Marine Battalion).

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

ANJANVEL.

south shore of the creek entrance half a mile from Añjanvel. It covers seven acres, and is surrounded on three sides by the sea, and on the fourth by a deep ditch now partly filled. There is no complete line of outworks, only one or two covered ways leading down to batteries. The fort walls, built of stone and mortar, are very strong, about twenty feet high and eight feet thick, with, at some distance from each other, twelve bastions, were armed with cannon. The fort is still in good condition. South of the fort is a deep trench eighteen feet broad. There are two doors, one to the east, the other to the west. On either side of the west door was a guardroom. The interior of the fort, once full of buildings, still has traces of small houses. There are also three wells with a plentiful supply of water. Near the wells is a building said to have been the store-room, close to it, a granary, and at a little distance, the Governor's palace.

ANJARLE.

Āñjarlē (Dāpolī T.; p. 2,319), a small port at the mouth of the Jog river, about four miles south of Ādē and two miles north of Suvarṇadurga. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ 110 miles to the south-east. There is a temple of Gaṇapati on a hill and it is known as *Kaḍyāchā Gaṇapati.*

ARONDE.

Ārondē (Sāvantvāḍi T.; p. 4,490), situated 15 miles to the south-west of Savantvāḍī, has four primary schools and one high school. There is a church, a mosque and some temples. Besides, there are three dispensaries and a telegraph office. There are also a coir industry and a tanning centre in Ārondē. The nearest railway station is Belgaum, 77 miles to the east.

AVRA FORT.

Āvrā Fort (Sāvantvāḍī T.), *Āvaḍe* Koṭ about 25 miles south-east of Sāvantvāḍī and about 42 miles north of the Veṅgurlē road, is built of stones and mud. It is surrounded by a dry ditch over-grown with brushwood and bamboo. On the north is an outwork connected with the fort by a very thick bamboo hedge on the east and a wall on the west. There is a strong but poorly sheltered gateway. The fort was dismantled in 1845. The fort is in a dilapidated condition at present.

BAHIRAVGAD FORT.

Bahiravgaḍ Fort (Chipḷūṇ T.), high and hard to reach, on a spur of the Sahyadris, covers an area of about eight acres of very broken, rocky brushwood-covered ground. The walls are in ruins; but water is abundant.

BAHIRAVGAD FORT.

Bahiravgaḍ Fort (Kaṇkavli Peta), on the top of the Sahyadris in the village of Digavḷe (p. 2,152) is between three and four acres in area. There are no walls or bastions and there is no provision for water.

BALAPIR

Bālāpīr (Dāpolī T.), on the top of a conical hill about half a mile from Dābhoḷ creek and four miles north-east of Dābhoḷ, has

a ruined mosque and a shrine[1] of soft red laterite, both domed, very simple, and of rough workmanship. In the tomb are three graves without any inscriptions, and in the enclosure outside are three more. An endowment, originally granted by the Habshī about the year 1650, and continued by Āṅgre and the Peshvā, was (1874) confirmed by the British. Of the date of the buildings there is no trace. The Habshī's grants show that they must be at least as old as the beginning of eighteenth century, and their battered weatherworn stones seem to point to a much greater age. The ruined step well in the plateau of the hill top is said to be the quarry from which the stones for the mosque were cut.

BANDE.

Bāndē (Sāvantvāḍī T.; 15° 45' N, 73° 50' E; p. 4,154), is on the right bank of the Terekhol creek near its mouth, about six miles south of Sāvantvāḍī. The nearest railway station is Belgaum 71 miles to the south-east. Upto Bāndē, the river is tidal. Under the Bijāpūr kings (1489-1686), Bāndē, then known as Ādilābād, was the chief town of a district, *subhā*, under a minister, *vazir*. In the beginning of the sixteenth century (1514), it was a town of Moors and Gentiles, with merchants who dealt with traders from the Deccan and from the Malabār coast. Many ships from different quarters brought rice, coarse millet and vegetables, and took away cocoanuts, spices, pepper and other drugs to Diu, Aden and Ormuz. There was also such export of goods and provisions from the interior.[2] In 1538, Bāndē was described as better and nobler, both from traffic and size, than Veṅgurlē, admitting galleys at low tide.[3] Nine years later (1547), it suffered much by a treaty between the Portuguese and the rulers of Vijaynagar, which provided that all Vijaynagar goods should be sent to Aṅkolā and Honāvar in the Kanara district instead of to Bāndē, and that all horses imported by the Portuguese should go to Vijaynagar instead of to Bijāpūr.[4] In the seventeenth century (1638), it is described as strong and fairly large with very beautiful streets, and a great trade with the Portuguese in pepper and European stuffs[5]. About thirty years later (1670), it was said to be a mighty city, two leagues from Goā and two from Veṅgurlē, built near the Dery, *Tereh*, with broad streets, many fair buildings and several temples.[6] In 1804, when the feuds between Shrirām Sāvant and Phoṇḍ Sāvant III were at their height, Bāndē was handed over to Chandrobā, Shrirām Sāvant's illegitimate son who soon after (1817)

[1] The story of the shrine is that a Dakshini Vāṇī named Bāḷāseth, becoming a Musalman, let loose a bull, and vowed to build a mosque wherever the bull stopped. The bull stopped on the top of the hill, where the Vāṇī built a mosque and a tomb. The graves in the tomb are those of the builder, his wife and his child, and those outside are raised over his horse and bull.

[2] Stanley's Barbosa 74.

[3] DeCastro's Primeiro Roteiro da Costa da India, 221.

[4] Col. de Mon. Ined. VII. 256.

[5] Mendelslo, 215, 223.

[6] Ogilby's Atlas, V. 248.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. BANDE.

became so powerful as to hold it successfully against the Vāḍi ruler. In 1826, it was a small port with 105 houses and five shops on a river navigable for large boats[1].

FORT.

On a mound about seventy-five feet high, within musket range of the left bank of the Terekhol creek, stands a ruined, irregular fort-tress built partly of good masonry and partly of loose stones and mud. The outer wall of the fortress is still seen, though in a dilapidated condition. There are three buildings within the fort wall which house the office of the police sub-inspector, Bāndē and the Government food grain godowns.

Besides the fort, there are the remains of some mosques, wells and tombs. To the south of the river, built of laterite covered with cement, is the Jumā mosque measuring forty by eighteen. The walls are damaged and the roof is gone, but some handsome cornices and entrance flight of steps remain. Outside the mosque is a cenotaph of Syed Abdul Kādar Jīlāni, the Pirān-pir or chief saint of Baghdād, where Muhammedan marriage parties usually come to pray.[2] Close by is a pond, 71′ by 60′. Near it, in fairly good repair, is a travellers' home, *musāfarkhānā*, a lofty octagonal tower with domed roof. The door-posts are formed of solid blocks of stone. Inside there are traces of two tombs and some very neat laterite carving in the arches. The building is surrounded by a groin-roofed gallery 110 feet long and ten wide. About 150 yards further is another roofless and ruined mosque 54′ by 28′. It has two rows of octagonal plastered stone-pillars with carved capitals and fine tracery about the arches and windows. Outside the building is a pond built in stone and mortar, sixty-one feet by fifty, with twenty-four stone steps leading to the water, and small cells all round; the southern portion of it is in ruined condition. A few hundred yards further is the *Reḍi Gumbaj* or Buffala Mosque which has lately been restored. There are also small tombs and ruins.

BANDAR SAKHRI

Bandar Sākhrī (Dāpolī T.; p. 524), landing place, two miles north-east of Dābhoḷ, has, on a reclaimed piece of ground on the left bank of the Vāsishṭhī, a very simple ruined black-stone building known as the Jumā, or Aminā, mosque. Its age is not known, but from a paper about the appointment of a warden, the building must be as old as the beginning of the seventeenth century (1624). It was probably built by one of a family of Khāns who formerly held several villages in the neighbourhood. To the east and west of Sākhrī, in the villages of Koṭhāmbē and Māji Tentlā, are two other mosques, and on a hill close by, a step well called the horse well, *ghoḍbāv*, seemingly of the same age as the mosques.

---

[1] Clune's Itinerary, 73.

[2] This is doubtful. According to the local account Abdul Kādar was a Bijāpūr general.

BANKOT

Bāṇkot or Fort Victoria (Maṇḍaṇgaḍ T.; 17° 55′ N, 73° 00′ E), is a minor port. Bāṇkoṭ lies at the foot of a rocky headland in the extreme north of the district on the south shore of the entrance to the Bāṇkoṭ or Sāvitrī river,[1] 73 miles south-east of Bombay.[2] A mile outside of the village, and two miles south-east of Fort Victoria, the bar of the Bāṇkoṭ river, with a narrow channel on its south-east side, stands nine feet deep at low water. Though well-buoyed the bar is much exposed even in the fine season (September-June), and should not be passed without a pilot.[3] Baṇkoṭ, though closed during the south-west monsoon, opens earlier and remains open longer, than most Ratnāgirī ports. The river is, for vessels of 16 feet draught, navigable eighteen miles to Mhāpraḷ in Dāpolī and for vessels drawing seven feet, ten miles further to Mahāḍ in Kolābā district.

It is now little more than a large fishing village. Cocoanuts, betelnuts and salted mangoes and small quantities of salt fish, and fins and maws are exported.

Trade had long left Bāṇkoṭ. A few resident shopkeepers supply the people with cloth, grain and groceries. Bāṇkoṭ has no manufactures, but at Bāgmanḍlē on the north bank of the creek, a few *saḷis* find employment in weaving coarse cotton cloth. Bāgmanḍlē has been a part of Kolābā district since 1949.

The volume of traffic that passed through the port in 1954-55 and 1955-56, is given below :—

	Imports (tons)	Exports. (tons)
1954-55	10,729	7,352
1955-56	2,531	2,011

Chiefly from cowdung and bad drainage, Bāṇkoṭ had for many years a bad name for fever. Now sickness has much decreased. The water supply is scanty. At Veḷās, the birth place of Nānā Phaḍṇis, a few miles south of Bāṇkoṭ are the remains of a masonry aqueduct of considerable length said to have been built by him (1720-1800) and where his statue was erected in 1955.

[1] It seems possible that the Sāvitrī is Ptolemy's Nānāguṇa, which in his map enters the Arabian Sea within Ratnāgirī limits. Nānāguṇa should perhaps be Nānā Gaṅgā, or the little Gaṅgā, a name naturally applied to Sāvitrī, as it is a small stream compared with the other Mahābaleshwar gaṅgas, the Krishna, Venā and Koynā.

[2] The name Bāṇkoṭ given to the fort by Marāthās, was in the time extended to the settlement, a peth at the foot of the hill. Velās, the original village, on the coast two miles south of the fort, is inhabited chiefly by Hindus, as Bāṇkoṭ is by Musalmans.

[3] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 386.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. BANKOT.

Bāṇkoṭ does not seem to have ever been a place of importance.[1] In 1540, Dom Joao de Castro, under the name Beicoim, describes the Sāvitrī river with great detail. It took its name Beicoim from a town on the south bank about a league from the river mouth. Ships went there to load wheat and many other kinds of food, and had its harbour not been so difficult, it would have been one of the first places on the coast.[2] In 1548, with other Bijāpūr coast towns,[3] it was destroyed by the Portuguese. No further reference has been traced till on 8th April 1755, five days after the fall of Suvarṇadurg, Commodore James of the British fleet arrived off Bāṇkoṭ. The fort surrendered on the first summons. Commodore James handed over charge to the Marāṭhās, and at the end of the rains (October), the fort and nine neighbouring villages[4] were ceded to the British and its name changed from Himmatgaḍ to Fort Victoria.[5] To the English Bāṇkot was chiefly valuable as a place from where Bombay Europeans and Musalmāns might be supplied with beef. There was also the hope that its once considerable trade would revive. It proved very serviceable in providing hemp ropes then much in demand for lashing cotton bales. As it was, the population doubled within ten years and nothing but the want of fresh water prevented a much greater increase. Several wells were dug and ponds repaired and every spot of arable land was made the most of. But as a great part was bare rock, the settlement never yielded much agricultural wealth. Many of the people keeping their families and property in British villages earned their living by tilling lands in the neighbouring Marāṭhā territory. Bāṇkoṭ never became a place of trade. The country inland was rugged and difficult and as vessels of about twenty tons (70-80 Khaṇḍis) could at that time easily pass up the river, the whole traffic centred at Mahāḍ.[6] In 1818, on the final conquest of the Konkaṇ by the British, a detachment of British troops was for a time stationed at Bāṇkoṭ and it was made over to the headquarters of the Collectorate. In 1822, the station was broken up and the headquarters moved to Ratnāgirī. Bāṇkoṭ was then made a sub-divisional station under a mamlatdar. Subsequently in 1837, the mamlatdar was removed and Bāṇkoṭ was placed under a mahalkari. The place proved so unhealthy that it was given up, and the mahalkari's headquarters were changed to Maṇḍaṇgaḍ. Maṇḍaṇgaḍ was later again changed from a mahal to a taluka in the year 1945.

[1] The Chinese traveller Hiouan Thsang (640), is supposed to have embarked at Bāṇkot. The identification is doubtful. Nairne's Koṅkaṇ, 10.

[2] Primeiro Roteiro da Costa da India, 41. He says the river is also called the Mahāḍ river from a large town of that name and the Honey river from the quantity of honey found on its banks. Beicoim would seem to be a corruption of Veḷās.

[3] Grant Duff, I. 76-78.

[4] The nine villages were: Velās, Veshvi, Bāgmaṇḍē, Shipolē, Kuduk, Pāṇḍerī, Pave, Kumbālā, and Dāsgaon.

[5] Nairne's Konkan, 92.

[6] In 1818, so safe was its navigation that on the occasion of the attack on the strong fortress of Maṇḍaṇgaḍ. Prince of Wales Cruiser and Sylph Brig went twelve miles up the river and might easily have gone further. Collector to Gov. 15th July 1819. Rev. Diaries 142 of 1819, 2573.

BANKOT.

On a high red hill covered with low bushes, stands the old, now much ruined fort, small and square, with bastions like those of many an English river mouth or harbour fort. Round the walls on the landside is a ditch. There are two separate bastions connected with the fort. One of these called the Refuge, *Panāh*, was built by the Habshī to guard the creek. The other bastion, high up the hill and approached from the water bastion by 300 steps was built by the Āngres. From this second bastion a further ascent of about 700 steps leads to the fort. Both bastions are now in ruins, but there are still the remains of a covered path. The fort was in 1862 in good order except for the part of the outer wall on the western side. It had no garrison and had only a scanty supply of water.[1] There are also the foundations of several good dwellings with the remains of gardens and several tombs.

To the north of Hareshvar, the round hill across the river is a rather famous but architecturally common-place temple. Not far from the temple are the remains of a garden, house and a lake made by the wife of one of the Jañjirā Chiefs. At Veḷās, are two temples dedicated to Shri Rāmeshvar and Kāḷbhairav, built respectively by Morobā Dādā Phaḍṇīs and Nānā Phaḍṇīs. The chief Bāṇkoṭ buildings are the custom house, the traveller's bungalow on the hill overlooking the harbour entrances and the residences of the Parkārs, a distinguished Muhammedan family who enjoyed grants of land from Government as rewards for faithful services in collecting supplies for the fourth Mysore (1799) war.

BHAGVANTGAD FORT

Bhagvantgaḍ Fort (Malvaṇ T.), in Masūre village and across, the creek from Bhāratgaḍ, has an area of about one and a half acres. There are no wells in the fort nor is it inhabited by the people. It is in a dilapidated condition. In a temple is a sacred stone, a pointed rock jutting through the floor, and apparently the peak of the hill. The fort was built about the same time as Bhāratgaḍ Fort (1701), by Bāvḍekar, the rival of Phoṇḍ Sāvant. After some resistance, it was taken by the British in 1818 (April-May).[2]

BURONDI

Buroṇḍī (Dāpolī T.; 17° 40′ N, 73° 05′ E, p. 3,880), a small port and fishing village, lying about six miles south of Harṇai, is joined with Dāpolī by a good bullock-cart road. A yearly fair in honour of Durgādevi, held in Chaitra (April-May), is attended by from 1,800 to 2,000 persons. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 108 miles to the south-east.

---

[1] Govt. list of civil forts, 1862.

[2] AS. Jour. VI. 320. The particulars of the capture are thus detailed: A detachment of the IVth Rifles, arriving on the 29th of March, was during the night employed in raising batteries, which were opened the next morning at daybreak. As it was found impossible to effect a breach across the river, two columns of the detachment under the command of Captains Gray and Pearson were ordered to cross at different passes to take the place by escalade. The garrison, on seeing that the troops had crossed, abandoned the fort. It was taken about ten o'clock on that day. Service Record of H. M's IVth Rifles, 22.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

BHARATGAD FORT.

Bhāratgaḍ Fort (Mālvaṇ T.;), on the south shore of the Kāḷavalī creek, on a hill commanding the village of Masurē (p. 9,255), is a fort with an area of between five and six acres. The inside of the citadel is an oblong of 105 yards by 60. The citadel walls are about 17 to 18 feet high and five feet thick. At the opposite ends of a diagonal running north and south are outstanding round towers. Within the citadel, about a quarter of its whole length from the north tower is a small temple, and near it is a big well about north tower is a small temple, and near it is a great well about 228 feet deep, cut through solid rock. About seventeen yards from each side and 100 yards from each end of this citadel, is an outer wall with nine or ten semi-circular towers. The wall is ten or twelve feet thick with an outer ditch. It is not very strong and seems to have been built without mortar. Some parts of the wall on the east and the north are dilapidated. Water is abundant. The fort has constantly changed hands. In 1670, Shivājī surveyed the hill but finding no water, would not fortify it. Ten years later (1680) Phoṇḍ Sāvant, fearing that it may fall into the hands of a chief named Bāvḍekar, cut the great well through the rock, and finding water, built the fort (1701).[1]

BHAVANGAD FORT.

Bhavāngaḍ Fort (Saṅgameshvar T.;), on rising ground close to the village of Chikhali (p. 1,202), in Saṅgameshvar taluka, is a small fort not more than half an acre in area. The walls of the fort and its compound are in a dilapidated condition. There is one gun in the fort.

CHIPLUN.

Chipḷūṇ (Chipḷūṇ T.; 17° 30′ N, 73° 30′ E; p. 15,847), the headquarters of Chipḷūṇ taluka, is situated 108 miles south-east of Bombay and twenty-five miles from sea, on the south bank of the Vāsishthī river, which, up to Govalkot, one and a half miles from Chipḷūṇ, is navigable for boats of about fifteen tons.[2] The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 60 miles to the south-east.

TRADE.

At the head of a navigable river and near the entrance to the Kumbhārlī pass, one of the easiest routes from the Deccan to the sea, Chipḷūṇ was always a good centre of trade. The chief articles received from the Deccan were cotton, gur, clarified butter, oil, grain, turmeric, and chillies; and from Bombay, most of them to be sent on to the Deccan, piece-goods, metals and other miscellaneous articles.

---

[1] Captain Hutchinson (Memoir on the Sāvantvādī State, 156) mentions a report that after a few shots from the fort guns, the water of the well disappears. In support of the truth of this story he notices that the garrison had wooden water tanks. But with so deep a well, even without a leak, it would be useful to have a store of water at the mouth of the well. Mr. R. B. Worthington.

[2] At Govaḷkot around 1870, stone quays were built for loading and discharging cargo. From Govaḷkoṭ to Chipḷūṇ, one and a half miles, runs a narrow tidal gullet, up which only flat bottomed boats can work. At the head of the Chipḷūṇ market is a pier, made soon after the territory was gained by the British. Owing to the silting of the creek, it is little used, most of the traffic being carried on by trucks.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.
CHIPLUN.

At present mill-made cloth coming from Mālegaon, Ichalkarañjī, Bombay, etc., has captured the local market. As a result the local handloom industry which was thriving in the last decade has received a set-back. Chipḷūṇ can no longer boast of being a feeding centre for surrounding talukas. Gur, Chillies, tobacco, sugar and grains are imported from up-ghats while Bombay supplies cloth.

Population.

Of the total population of 15,847, according to the Census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 2,681 and the non-agricultural classes 13,166. Of the latter, 2,509 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 3,555 persons from commerce; 1,617 persons from transport; and 5,485 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

Chipḷūṇ municipality was established in 1876, and is now governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. It is composed of 19 members, all elected. There are two seats reserved for women and one for the Scheduled Castes. The municipality elects a managing committee and committees for sanitation, dispensary, schools and shops and establishments.

For the year 1956-57, the total income of the municipality excluding extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 3,12,030; municipal rates and taxes being Rs. 2,61,182; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 7,155; grants and contributions Rs. 17,683; and miscellaneous Rs. 26,010. The total expenditure for the same year, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 2,03,426; general administration and collection charges being Rs. 38,860; public safety Rs. 25,014; public health and convenience Rs. 54,033; public works Rs. 65,913; public instruction Rs. 15,537; and miscellaneous Rs. 4,069.

There are two sources of water supply One *nalla* caters for a part of the town and one pucca built pick-up-weir across the river serves the rest of the town. However, water supply is scanty during April and May. Tail water when released from Fophaḷi at the lowest stage of the Koynā Project will help to solve this difficulty to a great extent. Road watering is done by well water pumped up by diesel pump.

There is no proper drainage system at present. It is difficult to arrange for under-ground drainage, as the town is very little above the sea level. A drainage system has been taken in hand (1959).

There is compulsory primary education, managed by the District School Board, the municipality paying its statutory contribution. A public library called the Lokamānya Tiḷak Smārak Vāchan Mandir is paid grant-in-aid by the municipality to the extent of Rs. 500 to Rs. 750 a year.

The municipality has recently constructed a fish market at a cost of about Rs. 30,000. There are a few dispensaries and maternity

CHAPTER 20. — Places. CHIPLUN. *Municipality.*

hospitals in the town besides a dispensary and a maternity ward run by the municipality, which are located in the municipal office building. Government maintains a veterinary dispensary in the town.

For fire service, the municipality has one truck fire-fighter which is used also as a road-watering vehicle.

Out of the total road mileage of 12·50, five miles are asphalted, four miles metalled and three and a half miles kaccha roads.

There is no municipal cremation or burial ground. The Brāhman Vaishya and Shimpi communities have their own cremation grounds. The Muhammedans also have their burial ground privately managed.

Somewhat separated from the town and half way up the road to the Public Works Department Bungalow, is a decent, new building for State Transport Stand and a canteen.

History.

Chipḷūṇ, the first home of the Koṅkaṇasth or Chitpāvan Brāhmaṇs, according to local traditions, stocked with Brāhmaṇs and supplied with sixty ponds and sixty gardens by Parashurām, the reclaimer of the Koṅkaṇ, has for long been a place of consequence.[1] In the seventeenth century it was a great village, very populous and plentifully stored with all provisions.[2] In 1818, it was taken by a body of Rāmoshīs, but abandoned by them on the approach of British forces.[3] In 1819, it was an insignificant village, but bid fair to be, Rājāpūr excepted, one of the chief trade centres of the southern Koṅkaṇ. During the dry season Vañjārīs, Vāṇīs, and a few Parsees, came, set up temporary booths, and left when the rains fell.[4] In 1821, it is spoken of as a place of very important trade.[5] In 1826, Chipḷūṇ was a town of considerable importance. The river was navigable for boats of about eight tons (30 *Khanḍis*) close to, and for boats of about fifteen tons (60 *Khanḍis*) within three miles of the town.[6] The building now used as a Government office was built as a rest house for Bājīrāv Peshvā, who for some years (1812-1815) came down the Kumbhārli pass to visit his palace at Guhāgar near Dābhoḷ.[7]

Rock Temples.

About a quarter of a mile south of the town is a series of rock temples. Of these the chief is tolerably high, with, at its inner end, a Buddhist relic shrine, *dāghobā*. There are also two or three smaller caves, and a deep thirteen feet square pond. Three stages on the road from Chipḷūṇ to Karāḍ in Sātārā is another series of Buddhist caves, consisting of a room with a small round relic shrine,

---

1 A stone was found at Chipḷūṇ bearing the date 1156 (1078?). Bom. As. Soc. Meeting, September 1879.

2 Ogilby's (1670) Atlas, V. 247.

3 Nairne's Konkan, 116.

4 Collector to Govt. 15th July 1819; Rev. Diaries 142 of 1819, 2575.

5 Bom. Rev. Rec. 16 of 1821, 638.

6 Clune's Itinerary, 38.

7 Nairne's Konkan, 121.

six feet in diameter and a hall, *shālā*, 19′ by 18′, with a raised seat at one corner and three recesses at the inner end.[1]

Govalkot Fort.

At Chipḷūṇ on a detached hill commanding the creek, and surrounded on nearly all sides by higher hills, is the fort of Govaḷkoṭ. This is said to have, at different times, belonged to the Habshī, Āngre, and the Peshvā, and Āngre is said to have besieged it for twelve years. At the top of the fort is a fine reservoir.[2]

A bridge has been constructed recently linking Govaḷkoṭ fort with Chipḷūṇ town. To speed up the carrying of goods and heavy machinery to and from the Koyna Project site a crane to load and unload the cargo from ships plying between Dābhoḷ and Govaḷ has been erected at Govaḷ. A road from Govalkoṭ fort to Pophaḷi was recently renovated.

Of the sixty legendary ponds dug by Parashurām,, only *Rām-Tīrth* holds some water. The walls of *Rām Tīrth* and the buildings on its bank are in a dilapidated condition which gives a deserted look to the surroundings.

DABHOL.

Dābhoḷ (Dāpolī T.; 17° 35′ N, 73° 10′ E; p. 5,065), a minor port, lies two miles from the sea, at the foot of the hills on the north bank of Añjanvel or Vāsishṭhī river, 85 miles south-east of Bombay, by sea. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 115 miles to the south-east by road. Some details of the entrance to Dābhoḷ are given under the head "Añjanvel". The site of Dabhoḷ, a narrow strip of land between the river and very high steep hills, is ill-suited for a large town.[3] If it ever was as populous as is stated, the buildings must have stretched three or four miles up the river.

Dābhoḷ is connected by a motorable road with Dāpolī, sixteen miles north. Coasting steamers call daily during the fair season, and up the Vāsishṭhī, in connection with the service to Bombay, a small steam launch takes passengers to and from Govaḷkoṭ, the landing place for Chipḷūṇ. At Dābhoḷ, a steamer landing place, a floating platform has been built, and some old cells attached to the outer or north wall of the mosque serve as passenger rest-houses. Except betel-nuts sent in small quantities to Bombay, there is no trade. The volume of traffic that passed through the port in 1954-55 and 1955-56 is given below:—

		Imports. (tons.)	Exports. (tons.)
1954-55	..	15,989	4,827
1955-56	..	16,281	5 290

[1] Jour. Bom. Royal As. Soc. IV. 342.

[2] Nairne's MS. notes

[3] Large remains, several feet underground, seem to shew that Dābhoḷ was in very early times a place of consequence. An under ground temple of Chaṇḍikā-devī is said to be of the same age as the Badāmī rock-temples (A.D. 550-578), Mr. Crawford's MS. A local history *bakhar* states that in the eleventh century Dābhoḷ was the seat of a powerful Jain ruler, and a stone writing has been found bearing date 1156 (3rd Vaishākh, 1078, Shālivāhan).

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

Weaving is the only industry. The town is fairly supplied with water. There is a lighthouse near the port.

DABHOL. *History.*

Dābhoḷ was one of the places destroyed by Malik Kāfur in 1312.[1] About fifty years later (1357), it is again spoken of as the western limit of the Bahamani dominions. In the fifteenth century, during the prosperous times of the Bahamani kings, Dābhoḷ was the centre of a great trade. In 1439 (864-H.), Yusuf Ādil Khān, a son of Murād II, Sultān of Constantinople, afterwards the founder of the Bijāpūr Ādil Shāhi dynasty, describes it as possessing the delights of paradise,[2] and under the name of Mustafabād or khizrābād, it is mentioned as one of the great towns of the Bahamani king, Sultān Mahmud II. (1482-1518), where, with ample funds, he established orphan schools.[3] About 1470, the Russian traveller Athanasius Nikitin (1468-1474), found it a large town and extensive sea port, the head of a large district where horses were brought from Mysor, Arabia, Khorāsān, and Nighostān and all nations living along the coast of India and Ethiopia met.[4] It was captured in 1481, after the execution of Mahamud Gāwāṇ. On the complaint of Mahmud Begaḍā (1459-1511), Sultān of Gujarāt, whose ships Bahādur had plundered, Mahmud Bahamani attacked and slew him (1494),[5] and visiting Dābhoḷ, sailed along the coast.

In 1500, about ten years after the new Deccan dynasties rose (1489), to power, Dābhoḷ passed into the hands of the Ādil Shāhi dynasty of Bijāpūr in 1498.[6] At the beginning of the sixteenth century two influences depressed Dābhoḷ. By the transfer of the head-quarters of power from Bedar to Bijāpūr, the direct line of traffic from the coast was moved south of Dābhoḷ, and its position,

---

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 379. According to a Persian history, Dābhoḷ was, about the middle of the thirteenth century, taken by a certain Shah Nāsir-ud-din or Āzam Khān who came to Ratnāgirī from beyond seas. The Hindu chief Nāgojirav, attacking them both by land and sea, tried to drive off the strangers. The attack failed, and after one of Āzam Khān's sons, Dābhoḷ was called Mustafābād and another settlement was, after a second son, named Hamzābād. Mr. Crawford's MS. It seems probable that this local history is incorrect in its dates, and that the Musalmān governors, after whom Dābhoḷ and other places near it are named, were officers of the Bahamani (1347-1500) and Bijāpūr (1500-1600) courts.

[2] Persian Ferishta, II. 3; Scott, I. 209.

[3] Persian Ferishta, I. 578; Briggs, II. 543; Scott I. 56, 57.

[4] Major's India in the XVth Century, 20-30. Mysor should perhaps be Misr, Egypt.

[5] Persian Ferishta, I. 715-719; Scott, I. 191-194; Briggs' Ferishta, II. 543. Ferishta gives the date 1494 (900 H.). According to the Gujarat historians Bahādur was taken alive and his head cut off and sent to Mahmud Begaḍā, Watson's Gujarat, 44, 45.

[6] Jervis' Konkan, 75. According to one account (Mr. Dunlop, Bom. Rev. Rec., 121 of 1819, 2226), Dābhoḷ was called Mustafābād after a certain Mustafā Khān, a Bijāpūr officer, who, in 1495 (903 H.), founded the town and appointed district and village officers. This is incorrect, as under the Bahamanis, Dābhol was known as Mustafābād. See above.

so close to the coast, made specially open to the attacks of the Portuguese, the enemies of the Bijāpūr kings. Varthema, in 1503, speaks of it as extremely good, surrounded by walls in the European fashion, containing great numbers of Moorish merchants and governed by a pagan king, a great observer of justice.[1] In 1508, Dābhol was one of the most noted coast towns with a considerable trade and stately and magnificent buildings, girt with a wall, surrounded by country houses, and fortified by a strong castle garrisoned by 6,000 men of whom 500 were Turks.[2] Against it, the Portuguese Viceroy, Admiral Dom Francisco D'Almeida, came (December, 1508) with nineteen vessels, carrying 1,300 Portuguese soldiers and marines and 400 Malbar seamen, and under cover of a false attack, landed at some distance. The resistance was vigorous; "Piles of dead strengthened the barrier of the city palisades. But the assailants pressed on, scaled the ramparts, and entering the city, plundered it, razed it to the ground, and reduced it to ashes, putting to death men, women and children[3]. Those who escaped came back, and restored the city so that in a few years it was inhabited as before.[4] In 1514, it was defended by a rampart and artillery, and was a place of great trade with many residents, Moor, Gentile, and Gujarat merchants, and large fleets of Moorish ships from Mecca, Aden, and Ormuz, and from Cambay, Diu, and Malbar. The imports were copper, quick-silver, vermilion, and horses; the exports were great quantities of country fabrics, wheat, and vegetables.[4] In 1520, Ismail Ādil shah (1510-1534), offered the Portuguese a friendly alliance if they would protect the import of horses into Dābhol.[5] To this the Portuguese seem not to have agreed and two years later (1522) Dābhol was again sacked. From this sacking it soon recovered, and in 1540, was a great city with the largest concourse of merchants of the whole Indian ocean, thronged with people from all parts of the world.[6] Seven years later it had only 4,000 inhabitants, two forts and some redoubts. In that year, it was destroyed by the Portuguese who took the upper town some way from the sea.[7]

---

[1] Badger's Varthema, 115.

[2] Faria-y-Suza. in Kerr's Voyages. VI. 115. De Barros (1550-1579), mentions it as a place of great commerce, full of noble houses, fine buildings, superb temples and old mosques (V. 266) (Compare also DeCoutto, VI. 419, VII. 239. and Mickle's Lusaid, X.) Dom Joao de Castro (1538), says the defences were slight and the Musalman garrison only 4,000 strong. Before it was pillaged by the Portuguese, Dābhol was, he says, a very large and noble settlement. the emporium of all India, thronged by Persians, Arabs, and traders from Cambay. Vide de J. Castro, 264-269; Prim. Rot. da Costa da India, 136

[3] Decunha's Chaul, 30, the wrath of the Firingi as it fell on Dābhol became a proverb. Baldaeus, 1660 (Churchill, III. 540), says that most of the booty was afterwards destroyed by fire. Faria-y-Suza notices that preserved locusts were found by the Portuguese and much liked by them. They tasted not unlike shrimps.

[4] Stanley's Barbosa, 72.

[5] Lassen's Ind. Alt. IV. 198.

[6] Dom Joao de Castro, Primeiro Roteiro da Costa da, India, 39

[7] *Vide* de Joao Castro, 264-269.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. DABHOL. *History.*

In the following year (1548), a treaty was made between Bijāpūr and the Portuguese. The Portuguese promised to send a factor to Dābhoḷ to give passports to merchants and others wanting to go to sea and to try their best to people and enrich Dābhoḷ.[1] In 1554, the Portuguese refused to pay the sum agreed on for the privilege of granting sea passports at Dābhoḷ, and in 1555, and again in 1557, they pillaged Dābhoḷ.[2] In 1570, the Gujarāt historians speak of Dābhoḷ as one of the European ports.[3] But it is doubtful if the Portuguese ever held it. If they did, they kept it only for a few years, as early in the seventeenth century (1611), Middleton found the governor, a Sidi, friendly, offering presents and free trade. Still the place was disappointing. The people "made a noise of" fine cloth, indigo, and pepper, but none was forthcoming, and all they took was some broadcloth, kerseys, and lead bars.[4] In 1616, in consequence of Middleton's honourable treatment of the Mokhā Junk, the governor of Dābhoḷ offered the English free trade, and as their position in Surat was most uncomfortable, they thought of removing to Dābhoḷ. In 1618, the English made a further attempt to trade,[5] and in 1624, again proposed to move to Dābhoḷ from Surat.[6] At first they were received by the Dābhoḷ people with much honour. Then a scuffle arose and the English took to their guns and set fire to the town. The people fled, but encouraged by a Portuguese factor and some others, came back and drove the English to their ships.[7] Ten years later (1634), they asked if they might start a factory, but probably because of the former disturbance were refused.[8] In 1639, Mandelso described the Dābhoḷ fortifications as in ruins, without walls or gates, defended on the river side by two batteries; the entrance, none of the best by reason of a sand bank at the mouth, was dry at low water. The people were Vāṇis and Musalmāns, and the chief trade was in salt and pepper. Instead

---

[1] Col. de Mon. Ined. V. I-43. The Portuguese for some years (1547-1554) seem to have paid £ 154 (2,000 gold *pardaos*) a year for the privilege of granting passports. Ditto, 244.

[2] Nairne's Konkan, 143. Faria-y-Suza in Kerr's Voyages, VI. 192. In 1571 the Portuguese made another attack on Dābhoḷ. But the governor, Khwājā Ali Shirāzī, having heard of their intentions, let them land and put to death upwards of 150 of them. Briggs' Ferishta, IV 540.

[3] Bird's Mirāt-i-Ahmadi, 129.

[4] Middleton in Harris, I. 107. About the same time (1611), Captain Harris speaks of selling iron, ivory, and indigo (Harris, I. 119), and Captain Peyton (1615), notices that the Portuguese had a factory but no fort (Harris, I. 155). How important a place of trade Dābhoḷ was, appears from the fact that one of its ships, the Mahmudi 136 feet long, 41 broad and 29½ deep, was of 1,200 tons burden. Orme's Hist. Frag, 325.

[5] Milburn's Oriental Commerce, XVII.

[6] Bruce's Annals, I. 261-274.

[7] De La Valle's letters, III. 130. Three years later (1626), Herbert describes the town as with low houses terraced at the top and with nothing to boast of but an old castle and a few temples. Nairne in Ind. Ant. III. 102.

[8] Bruce's Annals, I. 334. Mr. Nairne thinks that no factory was ever established, Konkan, 118.

of the fleets it used to send to the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea, there were only a few wretched boats trading with Combrun.[1]

DABHOL.
History.

In 1660, and again in 1661, Dābhoḷ was burnt by Shivājī, and in 1662, it was wrested from the Moghals and made a part of Shivājī's kingdom.[2] Thevenot about this time (1660), described it as an old city, with low houses and few fortifications.[3] In 1670, Father Navaritte spoke of it as a strong and handsome fort belonging to Shivājī.[4] In 1695, Gemelli Careri passed it almost without notice. Shortly after (1697), it was granted to the Shirke family.[5] From 1700 to 1744, under the joint government of the Habshī and the Marāṭhās, Dābhoḷ is described as an old place, deserted by trade, where the English once had a factory. About this time Tuḷājī Āngre took it, and driving out the Habshī, governed it for eleven years. It was then (1755), taken by the Peshvā,[6] and held by him till, without a struggle, it was, in 1818, handed over to the British.

Remains.

Except in the hills, where there seem to have been a round tower or two, there are no signs of fortifications. Of Musalman remains the chief is, close to the sea and almost buried in cocoanut trees, a handsome mosque 63′ by 54′, in its inner measurements, with minarets and a dome about seventy-five feet high. The style is like that of the chief Bijāpūr mosques. It is on all sides enclosed by a stone wall and approached by a broad flight of steps. In the centre of the stone terrace, in front of the mosque, are a well and a fountain. The mosque is said to have been built in 1659 by a Bijāpūr princess, Aisha Bibi, popularly known as lady mother, *mā sāhibāh*. The real date is probably much earlier.[7] In front of the mosque is a well-maintained garden with a pond and a fountain. Dābhoḷ has also a Jumā

---

[1] Mandelslo in Harris, II. 130, and Voyages, 220. The salt was said to come from Oranubammera perhaps Uran-Bombay.

[2] Grant Duff, 80, 83.

[3] Voyages, V. 249. Of the town Ogilby (1670) gives the following details · Anciently very famous, Dābhoḷ is now much ruined by wars and decreased in trade. It is open only on the south side which fronts the water where there are two batteries with four iron guns. On the mountains are several decayed fortresses and an ancient castle without guns or garrison. On the north point is a little wood, at a distance like a fort, and below the wood, near the water, a white temple. On the south point is another temple and several stately edifices. Atlas, V. 247.

[4] Orme's Hist. Frag. 206.

[5] Nairne in Ind. Ant. II. 280.

[6] Bankot Diaries in Nairne's Konkan. 92.

[7] The local account is that the princess, with a retinue of 20,000 horses, arrived at Dābhol, intending to go to Mecca but was kept back from fear of pirates. Determining to spend on some religious work, a sum of Rs. 15,00,000, she had with her, she, with the advice of the *maulvis* and *Kazis*, began building this mosque and finished it in four years. The builder's name was Kāmil Khān. The dome was richly gilded, and the crescent pure gold. The gold and gilt have long disappeared, but much of the beautiful carving and tracery remains. Eight villages, Bhopan, Saral, Isapur, Bhostan, Chivili, Modpur, Bharveli, and Pingari were granted for its maintenance. After the overthrow of the Bijāpūr kingdom, the grant was renewed by Shivājī (1670). The mosque still bears the name of its founder Māsāhibāh.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. DABHOL. *Remains.*

mosque built in 1649 (1059-H.), in the beginning of Aurangzeb's reign, by Pīr Ahmad Abdullāh, the chief officer, *subhedār* of the district.[1] On the sea face of a third mosque, a writing was found cut in wood in 1875. It begins with the usual Shia blessing of the Prophet, his daughter, and the twelve Imāms, and ends 'May God help Sādat Ali, king of kings, who raised this building in 1558 (987-H.)'.[2] There is also a cenotaph, *mukam* of Khwājā Khizr, the Prophet Elias, bearing the date 1579 (987-H.), and a tomb of Azamkhānpīr.

Recently a *dharmashāḷā* has been built at Dābhoḷ port. The dock is widened and landing facilities have been considerably improved by the State Government by spending an amount of two lakhs of rupees.

DAPOLI.

Dāpolī or Camp Dāpolī (17° 45′ N, 73° 10′ E; p. 3,958), the headquarters of Dāpolī taluka, stands on an open plain, about eight miles south-east of Harṇai and 17 miles north-west of Kheḍ. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 99 miles to the south-east. The camp or, as it used to be called cantonment, is formed out of part of the lands of the four villages of Dāpolī, Gimhavnā, Jogeḷe, and Jaḷgāon. In 1818, Dāpolī was fixed as the military station of the southern Koṅkaṇ. In 1840, the regular troops were withdrawn. A veteran battalion was kept till 1857, and when this also was abolished,[3] the cantonment was broken up. The climate is throughout the year cool, healthy, and free from epidemic diseases. It has been described as little Mahābaḷeshvar of Ratnāgirī district. The camp and market are well-supplied with drinking water. Except a few articles brought for local use from Harṇai and Khed, there is no trade. A small well-kept market contains groceries and miscellaneous articles. Dāpolī has no manufactures. Good coarse pottery and coarse cotton cloth are made in the neighbouring village of Jaḷgāon.

In 1862, the headquarters of the old Suvarṇadurg sub-division was moved from fort Govaḷ at Harṇai to Dāpolī. Besides the offices of the mamlatdar, the sub-judge, and the chief sub-divisional police offices, there is, to the north of the camp a civil hospital, a library, a Roman Catholic chapel (Recently restorations are made by the Archaeological department, Government of India), a post office, a vernacular school, two High Schools, (1) Alfred Gadney High School, (2) National High School, and a large rest-house. Here also are the remains of the former military lines and the old and still

[1] As much of the inscription on this mosque as has been read runs: "In the name of God, the Just, the Merciful. Verily mosques belong to God, so be not co-sharers with Him. The rival of this mosque in colour does not exist in the world. The best of well-born Governors Pir Ahmad (built this mosque), in the year 1059 (A.D. 1649) of the Hijri of the Prophet, on whom be peace and blessing".

[2] Bom. As. Soc, Meeting, Septr. 1879.

[3] Nairne's Konkan, 129.

DAPOLI.

habitable quarter guard. In a corner of the open plain, and divided from the market by the Harṇai-Kheḍ road, stands in dilapidated condition one of the chief features of the by-gone days, the picturesque old English church with a square tower and belfry. In 1878, the Societies for the Propagation of the Gospel removed their orphanage from Bombay to Dāpolī. At present, the missionaries have left the church.

DEVGAD.

Devgaḍ (16° 23′ N, 73° 21′ E; p. 2,493), the head-quarters of Devgaḍ taluka and a minor port, lies on a flat rocky peninsula about twelve miles south of Vijaydurg and 180 miles from Bombay. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 80 miles to the north-east. The beautiful and land-locked harbour of Devgaḍ is at all times perfectly smooth. The cliffs, steep on the north, fall on the harbour side in steps with a slope varying from twenty-five to forty degrees. The entrance is broad, but the passage into the harbour, only three cables wide, lies close to the fort point. Here, in eighteen feet water, ships may lie sheltered during the south-west monsoon.[1]

In 1875, the head-quarters of the sub-division were moved here from Khārepāṭaṇ. In 1538, Devgaḍ under the name Tamar, is mentioned as nineteen leagues from Goa and three south of Khārepāṭaṇ. It was a beautiful round bay and good harbour with a clear entrance. Galleys could enter at low tide.[2] When taken by the British in 1819, it was a fine harbour, but a place of little consequence.[3]

The fort on the south side, with an area of about 120 acres was built by Dattājīrāv Āṅgre in the year 1729 A.D. The fort was then surrounded by water and hence was described as *Jañjirā* in Marathi records. The fort taken by a British force under Colonel Imlack in April 1818,[4] protects the harbour, but perhaps because there was no place of importance up the creek, only slightly commands the entrance. At present the ditch joining the waters of the sea and the creek is filled up by mud.

After the conquest of this fort by the British, the fort was left to winds completely uncared for. However, the walls of the inner fort are as sound as before. Besides, there are many bastions especially

---

[1] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 390. It is high water on full and change of the moon at eleven hours; the rise and fall is about nine feet at spring tides and five feet at neaps.

[2] Prim. Rct. da Costa da India, 23. It has been thought to be Toperon mentioned both by Ptolemy (150) and in the Periplus (247). McCrindle's Periplus, 129.

[3] Malvan Resident, 31st May 1819; Bombay Revenue Diaries 141 of 1819, 2310.

[4] The particulars of the capture are: A detachment of the IVth Rifles under Col. Imlack moved on Devgad, where it arrived on the afternoon of the 7th April 1818. During the night the enemy kept a very heavy but fortunately ill directed cannonade, and early the next morning left the fort in sailing vessels. it was then occupied by the detachment. Service Record of H. M.'s IVth Rifles, 23.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. DEVGAD.

on the eastern portion of this fort in sound condition and there are at present three old guns thereon. Other three old guns were removed under the orders of the British Government at the close of the Second World War and are now lying before the *chāvaḍī* of the town.

The plateau of this fort was rightly utilised by the British Government for a light-house and an observatory. A new light-house of latest model and five small buildings for housing the staff under the Director of the Light-houses are constructed recently by the Government at a cost of about two lakhs of rupees. Besides, there is a small building for the observatory. This fort is a living monument of post-Marāṭhā glory. There seem to have been two forts, on the north and south ends of the hill between the harbour and the sea, joined by three or four round towers.[1] The walls are in a ruined state.

Devgaḍ is the only sheltered port on the western coast; right from Kārvār to Jaygaḍ. This important factor was fully recognised by the British Government which built a small jetty as a fuel base for submarines during the Second World War at a cost of about two lakhs of rupees. Recently Government has erected a spacious jetty for steamer passengers at a total cost of Rs. 5,05,000. The work was completed in 1958.

The possibility of this fine sheltered harbour being selected for a naval base or a naval school, is not far off.

Devgaḍ "Alphonso Mangoes" of the world fame are exported every year from this harbour. Devgaḍ hemp of high repute is also exported to foreign markets like Manchester etc. The export of hemp is not encouraged recently and hence its production has suffered a great set-back. Good quality fish is also exported.

The volume of traffic that passed through the port in each of the following years is as stated below:—

Year.		Imports in tons.	Exports in tons.
1955-56	..	5,887	1,417
1956-57	..	4,967	1,360
1957-58	..	5,545	1,295

Devgaḍ is joined by a highway via Phoṇḍā Ghāṭ to Kolhāpūr. Mango parcels from Devgaḍ are carried to Bombay by motor trucks and by steamers. Devgaḍ has been the taluka headquarters since 1875 A.D. and the British Government built two spacious buildings, one accommodating the office of the Mamlatdar with the treasury and prison and the other housing the Civil Court. There is one fully equipped Travellers' Bungalow, (B. & C.D.) built on a fine plateau of the hill about the year 1875. Besides there are two *dharmashāḷās* at Devgaḍ.

[1] Low's Indian Navy, I. 296.

The town is situated around a fine semi-circular bay of the Devgaḍ creek and further development of this town covers a fine, spacious plateau of a small hill.

Devgaḍ has got a comparatively fine, cool, temperate and bracing climate all throughout the year and inspite of the rather heavy coastal rainfall it remains comparatively dry owing to its special natural situation whereby all the rain water is drained off to the creek very quickly. Hence Devgaḍ is free from constant epidemics.

New buildings at the cost of Rs. 40,000 have been recently erected for primary schools. Besides, there is a spacious building built in the year 1938 together with its recent extension at the cost of about Rs. 75,000 constructed by the Devgaḍ Education Board wherein Seṭh Mafatlāl Gagalbhāī High School is housed.

There are two libraries, *viz.*, (1) Umābāi Barve Grantha-saṅgrahālaya, and (2) Grāmpañchāyat Library.

There is a Social Club "*Snehasamvardhak Maṇḍaḷ*" in the spacious building owned by the Maṇḍaḷ.

There is a sub-post and telegraph office. There is also a big State Transport Depot, wherefrom buses run every day on different routes connecting the town mainly with Ratnāgirī and Kolhāpūr, all the year round.

There is a big Government godown for storing foodgains, recently built by the Government.

There is a District Local Board dispensary in a fine building with a special ward for indoor patients including maternity cases.

There is also a Government veterinary dispensary.

DEVRUKH.

Devrukh (Saṅgameshvar T.; 17° 00′ N, 73° 35′ E; p. 6,470), headquarters of the Saṅgameshvar taluka since 1878, stands on an open plain or table-land about twelve miles south of Saṅgameshvar, between Kunḍi and Ambā passes, at the foot of the Sahyadri range and below the fort of Mahipatagaḍ. The headquarters of the taluka was moved from Saṅgameshvar to Devrukh in 1878. Devrukh, though at present with no trade lies on the motorable road between Sākharpē at the foot of Ambā pass and Sangameshvar.[1] It is healthy, well-wooded and picturesque. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 81 miles to the south-east. Vegetables. grocery and cloth are brought from Kolhāpūr.

There is a civil and judicial court, a police station and a high school at Devrukh.

DHAMAPUR.

Dhāmāpūr (Mālvaṇ T.; 17° 15′ N, 73° 35′ E; p. 3,432), is a large village, on Kārli creek, ten miles east of Mālvaṇ, on the road to Kuḍāḷ and Sāvantvāḍī. The nearest railway

[1] Details are given later.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. DHAMAPUR.

station is Kolhāpūr, 88 miles to the north-east. Dhāmāpūr is chiefly interesting for a lake which waters a large area of rice and garden land both in Dhāmāpūr and in the neighbouring village of Kālsā. The lake, one and a half miles long, and on an average a quarter of a mile broad, covers an area of about 125 acres, and on three sides is surrounded by well-wooded hills. The narrow ravine between the steep hills on the south, has been dammed by a solid earthen embankment faced with masonry, 450 feet long, and at its widest ninety-six feet broad. The lake having no sluice or other means for regulating the water discharge, the channel has every year to be dammed by the villagers with earth and faggots. On the level top of the dam, on a paved terrace with a broad flight of stone steps running to the water's edge, stands a temple of Bhagavatī and other minor buildings. The local story that the dam is about 300 years old, is to some extent confirmed by the size and evident age of the trees growing on its top. The tradition is that in former years there was at the bottom of the deep stream, a temple of Bhagavatī. Pious Hindus, after praying to the goddess and casting flowers into the stream, had only to utter a wish for any ornament or jewel, and at the same time to lower an earthen vessel into the water, when it would be immediately returned with the wished-for gift. When the dam was constructed a temple of Bhagavatī was accordingly built on it. The temple is in good condition. A small yearly fair is held in Chaitra (March-April). About 1,000 to 1,200 people assemble at the fair. The hill slopes round the lake are Government forest.

DHOPESHVAR.

Dhopeshvar (Rājāpūr T.; p. 1,449), a village about a mile and a half from Rājāpūr, contains the temple of Dhopeshvar. It is an old temple in which there is a *ling* of Lord Shiva and golden idol of Goddess Pārvatī. The *ling* of Lord Shiva is made of black stone. The village revenues are alienated for the support of the shrine and every year, attended by about 2,000 people, a fair is held on *Mahā-Shivrātra* (March-*Māgha Vad*. 13). A procession is formed, and the idol of Lord Dhopeshvar covered with a gold mask, is carried round the temple in a palanquin on Vijayādashamī Day.

FORTS.

Forts. Ratnāgirī forts are either inland or on the coast. Coastal forts are of two classes, island and headland forts. Of island forts the chief are the Harṇai fort of Suvarṇadurg and the Sindhudurg fort of Mālvaṇ. Of headland forts, most of them on the bank of some river, the chief are, beginning from the north, Bāṇkoṭ, Añjanvel or Gopāḷgaḍ, Govaḷkoṭ, Jaygaḍ, Ratnāgirī, Pūrṇagaḍ, Saṭavlī, Rājāpūr, Jaitāpūr, Vijaydurg, Khārepāṭaṇ, Devgaḍ, Bhagavantagaḍ, Rāmgaḍ, Sidhgaḍ, Nivtī, Veṅgurlē, and Reḍī. The sites of a few of these, such as Añjanvel or Gopāḷgaḍ, Jaygaḍ, and Rājāpūr, are very little raised above sea level. Inland forts, all much the same in character, are built on some natural site of advantage, if in the low country on some steep hill commanding a river or pass, if in the main ranges on

FORTS.

some projecting spur or rock, or above a great natural scarp. All are built on the same principle. The hill top or the end of the spur or point is girt by a wall, strengthened by many bastions. On any slope or place likely to invite approach, an outwork is built and joined with the main fort by a passage between a double wall. The entrance, for there are seldom more than one, is generally the strongest and most noticeable part. The outer gateway, if the ground permits, is thrown far forward and protected by a bastion on each side, and often by a tower above. Entering this, a narrow passage winding between two high walls leads to the inner gate, in the face of the main wall, along an approach commanded by bastions. This arrangement, in a time when guns could not compete with stone walls rendered the gates almost unapproachable. Inside the main wall there was generally an inner fortress or citadel, and surrounding this the buildings required for the troops, magazines, reservoirs, and wells. In many of the larger forts, houses for the commandant, or massive round towers were built upon the wall of the main works on the least accessible side. The larger forts had generally a town, *Peṭh* clustered about or near the base of the hill.

The age of most forts is difficult to fix. Some of them, as Manḍaṇgad, may be as old as the Christian era. But of this the evidence is very slight.[1] Some are said to have been built by Bhoj Rājā of Pāmāḷā in the end of the twelfth century.[2] But most are supposed to be the work of the Bijāpūr kings (1500-1660), raised in the sixteenth century, and repaired and strengthened in the seventeenth by Shivājī.[3] Like those of the north Konkaṇ, the Ratnāgirī forts were neglected by the Peshvās. In 1818, except for the labour of bringing guns to bear on them, they were easily taken by the British. Nothing was done to destroy the fortifications. But except Bāṇkoṭ, Harṇai, Vijaydurg, and a few others which have from time to time been repaired, all are now, by bad weather and growth of creepers and wall trees, more or less ruined. There were said to be 365 forts in Ratnāgirī. Remains of only about forty of these are seen at present.[4]

[1] See under, "Mandangaḍ".

[2] Nairne's Konkan, 19.

[3] Shivājī more than any other ruler attached importance to hill forts. Every pass was commanded by forts, and in the closer defiles, every steep and overhanging rock was held as a station from which to roll great masses of stones, a most effectual annoyance to the labouring march of cavalry, elephants, and carriages. It is said that he left 350 of these posts in the Konkan alone. Orme's Hist. Frag. 93. One distinguishing mark of forts built or rebuilt by Shivājī is, inside the main gate, a small shrine with an image of Hanumān or Māruti.—Mr. G Vidal, C. S.

[4] These are: Āmbolgaḍ, Bahiravgaḍ, Bhāratgaḍ, Bhavāngaḍ, Bhagavantgaḍ, Devgad, Fatehgad, Fort Victoria, Gopāḷgad, Govā, Govaḷkoṭ, Jaygad, Jaitāpūr, Kāmṭekoṭ, Kanakdurg, Khārepāṭaṇ, Mahipatgaḍ, Maimatgaḍ, Mandangaḍ, Nāṇdos, Nivṭi, Pālgaḍ, Pāṇḍavgad, Pūrṇagad, Rājāpūr, Rājakoṭ, Rāmgaḍ, Rasālgaḍ, Ratnāgiri, Redi, Sātavali, Sidhgaḍ, Sindhudurg, Sumārgaḍ, Sarjekoṭ, Suvarṇdurg, Uchitgad, Vengurlā, Vetālgaḍ, Vijaydurg, Vijaygaḍ, and Yeshvantgaḍ.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. GANAPATI PULE.

Gaṇapati Puḷē (Ratnāgirī T.), is a hamlet about two miles south of Māḷguṇḍ (17° 05′ N, 73° 15′E; 3,312). There is a holy spring oozing from the rock. In a temple near it is a small image of Gaṇapati.

GOVAL.

Govaḷ the Chipḷūṇ landing place, a village on Māp island, twenty-eight miles from the mouth of the Vāsishṭhī, and by road three miles from Chipḷūṇ, has a custom house and a rest-house. Of its old fort, details are given under "Chipḷūṇ".

GOVALKOT FORT.

Govaḷkoṭ Fort[1] (in Chipḷūṇ municipal area), on a small hill rising from rich fields, surrounded on three sides by the Chipḷūṇ creek and with a filled up ditch on the fourth, covers an area of about two acres. Water lasts till April and provisions can be had in a village, two miles off. The walls and bastions are in ruins. The place has little natural or artificial strength. There are two doorways, one to the north, the other to the east, and eight battlements. On the south wall, is an image of Redjāiji.

According to local report, the fort was built about 1690, by the Habshī of Janjirā. The Habshī may have repaired the fort. But the position of the Redjāiji image seems to show that it was part of the original fort and that the builder or renewer was a Hindu king, probably Shivājī (1670). From the Habshī, it was taken by Āngre (about 1744), from him by the Peshvā (1755), and from the Peshvā by the English (1818).

GUHAGAR.

Guhāgar (Guhāgar T.; 17° 25′ N, 73° 10′ E; p. 5,031), a town on the coast, six miles south of Añjanvel, is the head-quarters of the Guhāgar taluka. It was known to the Portuguese as the bay of Brāhmaṇs. In 1812, the Peshvā, as a hot weather resort and for certain religious rites, built a palace on the cliff to the south of the village. Most of the materials were (1823) used for Government buildings in Ratnāgirī,[2] but some of the palace ruins are still standing. There is a rectangular patch of land of about half an acre having a temple at each corner and a temple of Shiv in the centre. The temple at the centre was built at an early date as compared to the temples at the corners. The temple of Shiv built in black stone is known for its architecture. A fine image of *Nandī* in a squatted position is so exquisitely worked that even from a close distance one takes it for a live animal. The road through the village is a straggling street, three miles long. The houses are built close to the beach, and the whole length of the village is densely shaded with cocoa palms and other trees. An open roadstead, with no anchorage or tidal creek to shelter even the smallest craft, Guhāgar has never been a place of trade. From 1829 to 1873,

---

[1] Tulājī Āngre called this fort Govindgaḍ and the Añjanvel fort, Gopāḷgaḍ, Gopāḷ and Govind being generally used for any couple of things very closely alike. Mr. A. T. Crawford's MS.

[2] Waddington's Report in Nairne's Konkan, 121.

Guhāgar was the head-quarters of the Guhāgar sub-division. In that year it was reduced to a petty division subordinate to Chiplūṇ. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 87 miles south-east.

HARNAI.

Harṇai (Dāpolī T.; 17° 45′ N, 73° 05′ E; p. 6,889), a minor port, about two miles south of Añjarlē and fifteen north of Dābhoḷ, lies in a small rocky bay, a shelter for coasting craft in north-west winds.[1] Under the Marāṭhās, Harṇai was the head-quarters of a sub-division and here, in 1818, a station for British troops was established. It does not seen ever to have been a place of consequence. Harṇai is connected by an all weather, motorable road with Dāpolī and Kheḍ, and during the fair season, coasting steamers call regularly. There is a light-house near the port. From September to June, there is a brisk market for fish, thronged by buyers from many miles around. The only industry is, by workmen of the Saḷī caste, the weaving of coarse cotton robes.

The volume of traffic that passed through the port in each of the three years 1953-54, 1954-55 and 1955-56, is given below :—

		Imports in tons.	Exports in tons.
1953-54	..	6,793	1,491
1954-55	..	3,982	1,459
1955-56	..	3,783	1,144

Forts.

The chief objects of interest are, a little to the north, the well-known island fortress of Suvarṇadurg or Jañjirā,[2] and the smaller forts of Kanakdurg, Fatehgaḍ and Govā. On the mainland opposite Suvarṇadurg, and separated by a narrow channel, are the forts of Kanakdurg and Fatehgaḍ, of little value except as outworks to Suvarṇadurg. According to one account they were built by Shāhū in 1710 to overawe Suvarṇadurg, but were soon after taken and held by Āṅgre.[3] According to another account they were built in 1700 by Khairat Khān, the Habshī of Jañjirā, soon after his unsuccessful attack on Suvarṇadurg, and remained till 1727 in the Habshī's hands.[4] In 1755 on the English capture of Suvarṇadurg, these forts yielded without a struggle.

Kanakdurg.

Kanakdurg, on rising ground, surrounded on three sides by the sea, has an area of not more than half an acre. In 1862, it was ruinous, and had neither a garrison nor water.[5] Of the fort nothing is now

[1] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 387

[2] This is not the famous Jañjirā on the Rājpurī Creek in Habsan. Details of Suvarṇadurg are given under Suvarṇadurg.

[3] A. Hamilton, about the same time, speaking of it as Horney Coat, says t was fortified by Shivājī, New Account, I, 244.

[4] The names of the Governors of the forts during this time were, Dharamrāy Sāvant, Hibrāv Daḷvī, Sidi Masūd Khān, Sidi Masūd, Sidi Said or Amalgar, Sidi Said or Vadle and Sidi Yākūb. Mr. A. T. Crawford's M. S.

[5] Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

HARNAI.

Forts

Fatehgad

Gova Fort.

left but two battlements, one at each end. Inside are nine small ponds, eight near each other, separated only by open cut-stone walls, and the ninth at a little distance to the west. They have plenty of water.

Fatehgaḍ or Victory Fort is an utter ruin.

Govā Fort on rising ground, surrounded by the sea on its north and west sides, has an area of about two acres. In 1862, it was in good order, and had a guard of 19 constables and 69 old, unserviceable guns. Water was scanty, but food supplies were abundant. Surrendering to the British on the fall of Suvarṇadurg, it was (1757) restored to the Peshvā, and retaken by the British in 1817. Larger and much stronger than the other forts, it is still in fair repair, and has a traveller's and a district officer's bungalow. Like Suvarṇadurg it has an image of Mārutī on a wall and that of a tortoise before the threshold. The walls are about twenty feet high. The southern part of the fort is about 50′ above sea level.

Besides these fortifications there are small remains on an isolated rock, an island except at low tide, that commands the bay of Harṇai. There is an English grave-yard, where some of the officers of the detachment stationed here in 1818, are buried.[1] The large tomb near the forts was raised in honour of one of the Angres. There is also a Roman Catholic chapel and cemetery. The three chief Hindu temples are those of Ekanāth, Murlidhar and Kamaleshvar. A small yearly fair is held in *Phālgun* (February-March).

Suvarnadurg.

Suvarṇadurg, the Golden Fortress, with an area of eight acres on a low irregular island, about a quarter of a mile from the shore, surrounded by a very high wall, is perhaps the most striking of the Ratnāgirī coast forts. Great parts of the fortifications are cut out of the solid rock and the rest are built of blocks of stone ten or twelve feet square. Relieved by bastions and broken by one rough postern gate just above high tide mark, the walls are so overgrown with trees and bushes, that, except at low tide, it is impossible to walk round them. Within the fort, are several reservoirs and a small step well with abundant water. On a stone at the threshold of the postern gate is an image of a tortoise, and opposite it on the wall towards the left, one of Mārutī. There are two guard rooms to the right and left, and rooms also under the bastions. At a little distance is a stone building plastered with mortar, said to have been the magazine. Some very extensive foundations are probably the sites of old palaces. In 1862, the walls and bastions were in good repair, but the gateway was ruinous. There was no garrison, but the supplies of water and food were abundant. There were fifty-six old and unserviceable guns.[2]

---

[1] The principal are the tombs of Capt. Vansittart of the 44th Regiment, N. I. and Lieut. Skirrow, R. E.

[2] Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

Suvarṇadurg, probably built by the Bijāpūr kings in the sixteenth century and in 1669, Strengthened by Shivājī, was in 1696, a station of Kānhojī Āṅgre's fleet, and in 1713, it was formally made over to him by Shāhū Rājā. Under Kānhojī's successor Tulājī, Suvarnadurg became one of the seats of his power. Such damage its fleets caused, both to Indian and foreign shipping, that the Peshvā's government several times proposed that the English should join them in suppressing Āṅgres. Early in 1755, a joint attack on Suvarṇadurg, Bāṇkot, and some other Āṇgres' forts was arranged. The siege lasted from 25th March to 2nd April, when the garrison surrendered. On the 12th April, Commodore James, according to agreement, made over Suvarṇadurg to the Marāṭhā Government. In 1802, Bājīrāv Peshvā, flying from Yeshvantrāv Hoḷkar, sought safety in Suvarṇadurg. But the fort could not be defended and Bājīrāv was forced to leave his family and retire to Vasaī.[1] Hoḷkar following him took the island and the Peshvā's family.[2] In 1804, Suvarṇadurg was, in the Peshvā's interests[3] captured by the English from a Marāṭhā officer. The fort was in bad repairs and the garrison, about 800 Arabs and Musalmāns, surrendered without fighting.[4] In November, 1818, it was taken by a British force with little resistance.[4]

At present the fort wall is in a good condition. There are three tanks inside the fort area, with potable water. Surrounding the tanks are *bor* trees. All the fort area is covered with grass. The fort is reached by boat at high tides.

JAYGAD

Jaygaḍ (Ratnāgirī T. ; 17° 17′ N, 73° 15′ E ; p. 2,309) a minor port near the fort of the same name, is on the south shore of the entrance of the Shāstrī or Saṅgameshvar river, about fourteen miles south of Guhāgar and 99¼ miles by sea, south of Bombay.

---

[1] Nairne's Konkan, 107.

[2] Blue Book on Maratha War (1893), 350, 463

[3] MS Records in Nairne's Konkan, 108

[4] Blue Book, 128; Nairne's Konkan, 114, 116. The details of the capture are; In the end of November, a detachment of Artillery and of the Marine Battalion (XXIst Regiment, N. I.), under the orders of Captain William Morrison of the IXth Regiment, was employed in reducing the fort of Suvarṇadurg which surrendered on the 4th December 1818. The Governor in Council, in General Orders of the 20th December, was pleased to express his high sense of the conduct of the detachment upon the occasion. Though opposed by very superior numbers, the energy of this small force succeeded in surmounting every obstacle, escalading and taking in open day. with a party consisting only of fifty sepoys and thirty seamen led by Captain Campbell of the IXth Regiment and Lieut. Dominicette of the Marines, the fort of Kandāh (Kanakdurg), notwithstanding the heavy fire of the enemy. This gallant and successful enterprise having completely intimidated the enemy, the two other forts, of Govā and Jañjirā, were abandoned during the night. Service Record of H. M.'s XXIst Regiment N. I. (Marine Battalion).

JAYGAD.

The volume of traffic that passed through the port in 1955-56 amounted to 32,552 tons of imports and 2,113 tons of exports.

Jaygad seems never to have been a place of consequence,[1] and is now little more than a fishing village. The climate is healthy, and the water supply from some reservoirs close to the fort is excellent. It has a custom house.

Port.

From Jaygaḍ point, the river mouth stretches more than a mile north to Boryā, forming a bay two miles deep and five broad. The chief entrance, with eighteen feet at low water, lies close under the Jaygaḍ cliffs. Within the points is a deep harbour safe against all winds.[2]

Jaygaḍ,[3] or Fort Victory, with an area of four acres, stands close to the shore on gently rising ground not more than 200 feet above the sea. Except in a few places, the walls and bastions are in good repair. The fortifications consist of a strong upper fortress on the brow of the hill, with a lower line of defences on the shore immediately beneath it, joined to the upper works by a connected line of bastions down the steep slope of the hill, the whole enclosing a considerable space occupied by a few huts. The upper part, added by Shivājī, has one well of good water. There is a sallyport in the lower walls near the sea, but the main gate is at the top of a very steep flight of steps on the east side. The walls are covered with creepers, which are slowly but surely causing them to fall into ruin. Supplies are limited to fish and poultry, the latter being difficult to obtain; water can be procured from two wells near the landing place.[4]

Two miles distant, on a hill on the opposite shore, about a quarter of an acre in area, with no water, is the smaller fort of Vijaygaḍ, protected by a ditch on three sides. Its walls are very ruined. Jaygaḍ fort is said to have been built in the sixteenth century by the Bijāpūr kings.[5] Towards the close of the sixteenth century,

---

[1] In 1819, there was no town, only straggling villages. Lieut. Dominicette, 9th June 1819; Bombay Public Diaries, 432 of 1819, 1066.

[2] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 388. It is high water at full and change of the moon at 10 hours 37 minutes, springs rise 9 feet 8 inches, neaps 6 feet 6 inches.

[3] Jaygad has been identified with Strabo's (B.C. 54-A.D. 24), Sigerdis, "the rest of the coast besides Sarasostus or Saurashtra" (Hamilton's Strabo, II. 253); with Pliny's (A.D. 77), Sigeris on the Koṅkan coast, "one of the chief ports of western India" (Bostock's Pliny, II. 50): with Ptolemy's (150) Melizigeris an island of the pirate coast; and with the Melizeigara of the Periplus (247). It seems better to refer these names to island. [illegible] and town of Meli or Meluṇḍi now known as Mālvaṇ. See Mālvaṇ.

[4] Hydrographic Notice No. 20.

[5] Jervis' Konkan, 92. Major Jervis says fifteenth.

Jaygaḍ seems to have passed into the hands of the Naik of Saṅgameshvar, who, with seven or eight villages and 600 troops, was so strong that the combined Portuguese and Bijāpūr forces, twice, in 1583 and 1585, made expeditions against him.[1] Jaygaḍ was (1713) one of the ten forts ceded by Bāḷājī Vishvanāth to Āṅgre on his promising to renounce Sambhājī, release the Peshvā, restore all his conquests except Rājmāchī near the Bor pass, and maintain the cause of Shāhū.[2] With other Ratnāgirī forts Jaygaḍ was, in June 1818, made over to the British without a struggle.[3]

Within the fort, two buildings are still used by district officers but these require repairs now. To the west of the fort, on the sea slope of the cliff, protected from the sea by extensive outworks, stands the temple of Kārteshvar or Shiv, still in good condition. There is also a reservoir of very pure water.

JAYTAPUR.

Jaytāpūr (Rājāpūr T., 16° 35′ N, 73° 20′ E ; p. 2414) is a minor port situated four miles from the entrance of the Rājāpūr river.[4] It is the outlet for the sea traffic from Rājāpūr, and the place of call for coasting steamers, which stop three times a week for passengers going to and from Rājāpūr. The village of Māḍaban has a sea custom house and a light house which is situated six miles away from Jaytāpūr.

The volume of traffic that passed through the port in 1954-55 and 1955-56, is given below :—

	Imports. (tons)	Exports. (tons)
1954-55	8,311	3,790
1955-56	4,030	9,898

The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr. 125 miles to the east. The main occupation of the village is agriculture.

Mandelslo (1638) mentions it under the name Suitāpūr as one of the best coast harbours, the island sheltering it from all winds.[5] Ogilby (1670), calls it Cetāpūr, one of the chief Koṅkaṇ ports,[6] and at the beginning of the eighteenth century, Hamilton (1700-1720) speaks of Rājāpūr harbour as one of the best in the world.[7] It was burnt by the Sidi and Moghal fleet in December 1676.[8]

---

[1] De Coutto, XII. 30 ; Faria in Briggs, III 524. See Nairne's Koṅkan, 35.

[2] Grant Duff, 193.

[3] Nairne's Konkan, 116.

[4] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 389. The details of the river entrance are given under Rājāpūr.

[5] Voyages, 221.

[6] Atlas, V. 248.

[7] New Account, I. 244.

[8] Orme's Hist. Frag. 64.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. JAYTAPUR.

On the north bank of the river, on the opposite side of the estuary lies the old ruined fort of Yeshvantgaḍ which is now in village Nāte.[1] Close to the edge of the cliff on the south point of Rājāpūr bay is the Jaytāpūr light-house. This, a small white masonry tower twenty-one feet high, shows during the fair months (10th September to 10th June), a fixed white light of the sixth order. It is ninety-nine feet above the sea level, and in clear weather can be seen from a distance of nine miles. During the cyclone of the 15th January 1871, a small steamer, the general Outram was wrecked off Ambolgaḍ bay a few miles north of the Jaytāpūr light.

KAMTEKOT FORT.

Kāmṭekoṭ Fort (Devgaḍ T.; R. S. Kolhâpūr 85 m.). The fort is situated in the area Sherei-Gherā Kāmṭe of the main village Koṭkāmṭē. The bastions on all sides have fallen down and only the plinth of the fort is in existence. The existing walls are about 10′ in height. The land inside the fort measuring about 30 gunthas is used as paddy growing land. The ditch covering an area of about eight gunthas is also used for paddy cultivation at present. According to the Record of Rights of the village the whole area under fort is a private land.

The temple of Shri Devī Bhagavatī lying about two furlongs from the fort is in good condition. There are four old guns near the temple. The management of the temple is done by a manager appointed by the Civil Court. About 2,000 to 3,000 people from neighbouring village attended the *Navarātra Utsav* held in the month of Ashwin, every year.

KELSHI.

Keḷshī (Dāpolī T.; 17° 55′ N, 73° 00′ E; p. 3212), a minor port, is at the mouth of the Keḷshī river south-east of Baṇkoṭ.[2]

The volume of traffic that passed through the port in 1955-56 amounted to 457 tons of imports and 77 tons of exports.

The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 116 miles to the south-east.

Keḷshī does not seem ever to have been a place of consequence. Dom Joao de Castro (1538), mentions it as a town with a mosque and Moors.[3] De La Valle (1624), anchored here, but for fear of the Malabars, did not go on shore.[4] Ogilby (1670) mentions it as

[1] See under "Yeshvantgaḍ Fort".

[2] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 386.

[3] Primeiro Roterio da Costa da India, 152.

[4] De La Valle. III, 136. The Malabār pirates who, from their practice of lying in wait behind it, have given its name to Malabār Point in Bombay.

a town and river.[1] In 1819, it was a place of little trade with a few Vañjāris and a small export of grain.[2] The village of well-built houses is thickly peopled and densely shaded by cocoa palms. The climate is considered unhealthy, the water supply from garden wells being scanty and sullied by sub-soil drainage. The river is for a few miles navigable for small boats, and the hills on the north bank are well-covered with trees. There are two temples one to the Goddess Durgā, the other to the God Shri Rāmjī. A yearly fair held in Chaitra (April-May) is attended by about 25,000 people.

KHAREPATAN.

Khārepāṭaṇ (Kaṇkavli Peta; 16° 30′ N, 73° 35′ E; p. 3400), is situated 25 miles up the Vijaydurg river. Owing to the silting of the river for some miles below it, Khārepāṭaṇ has lost much of its value as a port. It has little trade and its site is hot and confined. Being an old Musalman town, it has many Muslim tombs and ruins of mosques. A fine level space lying above a long reach of the river is evidence of the existence once of a large town. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 80 miles to the north-east.

Trade.

The trade of Khārepāṭaṇ is chiefly in fish and salt. It has direct communication with the Deccan by the Phoṇḍā Ghāṭ and is on the main line of road from Ratnāgirī to Veṅgurlē. A weekly bazar is held on every Tuesday and is attended during the fair season by about 1,000 persons and during the rainy months by from 200 to 300 persons.

Management.

From the beginning of British rule until 1868, the town was the head-quarters of a petty division under a mahalkari. In 1868, it became the head-quarters of the Devgaḍ sub-division. In 1875, Khārepāṭaṇ was abandoned, and the mamlatdar's and sub-ordinate judge's offices were moved to Devgaḍ. Now, it is only a village in Kaṇkavli peta.

History.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century (1514), Barbosa mentions Khārepāṭaṇ, *Arāpaṭṇi*, as a small place where Malabar vessels took on board, cheap rice and vegetables.[3] In the course of the same century, it is mentioned as place of trade and a resort of pirates.[4] In 1571, it was burnt by the Portuguese.[5] In the seventeenth century Khārepāṭaṇ is more than once mentioned as the best port on the Koṅkaṇ coast. But these references belong to Vijaydurg rather than to Khārepāṭaṇ. In 1713, it was made over to Kānhojī Āṅgre, held by him till his defeat by the Peshvā, in 1756, and finally ceded to the British in 1818.

---

[1] Atlas, V. 244; Dom Joao de Castro was probably Ogilby's authority as they both call the place Quelecim. See Prim. Rot. da Costa da India, 39.

[2] Collector to Gov., 15th July 1819, Bom. Rev. Diaries, 142 of 1819, 2573.

[3] Stanley's Barbosa, 73, 74.

[4] De Coutto, VIII. 569, IX. 109.

[5] Briggs' Ferishta, IV. 540.

CHAPTER 20. Places. KHAREPATAN. *History.*

In 1819, it was described as one of the most suitable places for trade in the district. The largest boat could work up to it, and it was only about fifteen miles from the Bāvḍā Ghāṭ. Still its trade was small. The exports were valued at Rs. 90,700 and the imports, chiefly of salt, at Rs. 1,61,000.[1]

Fort.

On a small hill overlooking the Khārepāṭaṇ village is a fort about an acre in area. The walls and bastions were taken down in 1850, and used to make the Vāghoṭaṇ landing place.[2] The sites of twelve or thirteen mosques are shown, and the remains of one, the Jamā mosque, prove it to have been a building of large size. Outside of the present village is a very large brick reservoir, ruinous and nearly dry, with an inscription stating that it was built by a Brāhmaṇ in 1659. Near the middle of the present village is a half-buried stone believed to have been the boundary between the Hindu and the Musalmān quarters. Among many tombs on the hill side, a few not otherwise distinguishable, lying east and west, are said to cover the graves of Jews. And in the middle of the present village there is a colony of Karnāṭak Jains and a Jain temple said to be the only one in south Koṅkaṇ. In the temple is a small black marble idol that was found in the bed of the river.[3]

KHED.

Kheḍ (17° 40′ N, 73° 20′ E ; p. 6477), the headquarters of Kheḍ taluka, stands at the head of the Jagbuḍī river. Surrounded by hills, the town is oppressively hot during March, April and May. Its trade is carried on during the fair season only. A motorable road by Dāpolī connects Kheḍ with Harṇai port at a distance of twenty-six miles and Sātārā is reached by a well-built road over the Āmbavali Ghāṭ. An all-weather motorable road connecting it with Chipḷūṇ 24 miles south, and with Polādpūr, twenty-three miles north, forms part of the Bombay-Koṅkaṇ-Goa State Highway and places Kheḍ in indirect communication with the routes to the Deccan by the Kumbhārlī and Mahābaḷeshvar Ghāṭs. Boats of light draught work up on the tide from Dābhoḷ and Añjanvel to Kheḍ. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 85 miles to the south-east.

Of the total population of 6,477, according to the Census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 1,125 and the non-agricultural classes 5,352. Of the latter, 1,061 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 1,529 persons from Commerce; 260 persons from transport; and 2,502 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

The Kheḍ municipality was established on 1st April, 1940, and is now governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. It consists of 12 elected members; one seat is reserved for women

---

[1] Gov. Res., 13th May 1819, in Bom. Rev. Diaries, 141 of 1819, 2310.

[2] Gov. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

[3] Nairne in Ind. Ant. II. 321. In Burgess' List, it is stated that copper-plates were found here. Ind. Ant. II, 321.

and one seat for Scheduled Castes. The municipality elects, besides the managing committee, school, dispensary and sanitary committees.

In 1957-58, the total income of the municipality, excluding extra-ordinary and debt heads, totalled to Rs. 1,84,483, municipal rates and taxes being Rs. 1,36,454, revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 9,011, grants and contributions Rs. 20,153 and miscellaneous Rs. 18,865. The total expenditure for the same year, excluding extra-ordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 2,94,236, composed of general administration and collection charges, Rs. 29,825, public safety Rs. 9,822, public health and convenience Rs. 1,79,850, public works Rs. 55,937, public instruction Rs. 3,149 and miscellaneous Rs. 15,653.

The water supply is from two *nallas*. The water of these *nallas* is stored by means of a weir and is brought to the town through pipes worked on the principle of gravitation. The weir works are located six miles away from Kheḍ. A new water works scheme has been approved by Government, who have agreed to give 50 per cent. of the cost as grant-in-aid. The municipality has raised a loan of Rs. 1,80,000, towards meeting the cost.

There is no proper drainage system. Sullage is carried through stone-lined gutters. Some of it is carried to the river, but a portion is allowed to spread on the open land where it evaporates. Compost is prepared from this waste.

The municipality keeps a fire fighter.

There are about six and a half miles of roads of which three miles are metalled and the rest unmetalled.

The municipality has built a vegetable market having ten stalls. There is also a mutton market.

Compulsory primary education is managed by the District School Board. The municipality pays its annual statutory contribution. There is a high school conducted by the Kheḍ Vyāpārī Dharmādāv Education Society. The municipality pays a grant of Rs. 1,500 every year to this institution.

The municipality runs a dispensary with a maternity home attached to it.

There is a municipal park in the town as also two play-grounds under municipal management.

The municipality manages two cremation grounds for Hindus. There are four burial grounds for Muhammedans, managed privately by the community.

History.

No references to Kheḍ have been traced. Before 1873, when it was made a separate Sub-Division, it was the head-quarters of a petty division under Dāpoli or Suvarnadurg.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. KHED. *Rock Temples*.

On the side of a low hill to the east of the town are three small rock temples known as the 'Paṇḍav Leṇi. Of their origin, nothing is locally known. Among several temples, none of architectural beauty, one is dedicated to the goddess Kheḍajī. There is also one Buddha *Stupa*.

Kheḍ is being developed under Community Development Schemes There is a tailoring class, a tanning centre (1959), a training school in spinning and a basic school in carpentry and woodwork. Co-operative societies have been organized for various industries. *Mahilā Maṇḍaḷ* and Youth Club, carry out social, cultural and sports activities. There is an inspection bungalow, for touring Government Officers. There is also a hostel for the boys of ex-servicemen in Khed, where free lodging and boarding is provided.

There are hot springs within the municipal limits.

KUNKESHVAR.

Kunkeshvar (Devgaḍ T.; 16° 15′ N, 73° 20′ E; p. 1436) a small village on the coast is noteworthy on account of the temple from which it takes its name. The temple with granite foundations and laterite superstructure and dome, is said to have been built by a Musalman trader. An inscription on a stone, let in over the entrance, states that it was repaired and enlarged by the Kolhāpūr chief in 1680. The temple is in a very good condition and is at present looked after by the present Deosṭhān Committee. A yearly fair, held on the last day of *Māgh* (February-March), attracts about 10,000 people. The duration of the fair is seven days. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 80 miles to the north-east.

LANJE.

Lāñjē (16° 50′ N, 73° 30′ E; p. 3523), is the headquarters of Lāñjē Peta. It stands on an old highway between Sātavlī on the Muchkunḍi and Vishaḷgaḍ fort, though now a place of no importance is said to have once been a large Musalman town. The village, standing on a level plain, is well supplied with water and considered healthy. Formerly it was joined by a cart road with Rājāpūr and Ratnāgiri, 19 and 28 miles distant but now both the roads are metalled and the Lāñjē-Rājāpūr Road forms part of the Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway. From the time of the Peshvā upto the 1st August 1879, when Veṅgurlē was made a sub-division, Lāñjē was the head-quarters of a petty division of Rājāpūr.

In the village is the grave of a Muhammedan saint named Syed Chānd Bukhāri Ali Faqir, said to have lived about five hundred years ago. Yearly at the *Māgh* (January-February) full moon an *Urus* is held, when the tomb is, with ceremonies and prayers, covered with a cloth and sprinkled with powdered sandalwood. The fair is still largely attended (1960), by people of different communities from Lāñjē and the neighbouring villages. Shopkeepers come from Rājāpūr and open temporary booths at which for about a month

coarse country and imported cloth and miscellaneous articles are sold. There is also a domed tomb near the village with no more definite history than that it marks the grave of a princess who died on a journey.[1]

There is a Village Pañchāyat at Lāñjē. Besides, there is a high school, a village library and a Government godown. There is also a maternity home which is financed through Kasturbā Memorial Fund. Pottery and shoe-making are carried on as small scale industries catering to the needs of local customers. Tuesday is the bazar day when people from nearby villages come to purchase their domestic requirements and also bring cattle and fire-wood for sale.

The temple of Shiv lying on the west bank of a small river that runs on the outskirts of the village is built in red stones. A yearly fair is held in *Māgh Vadya* 13th *Mahāshivrātri* and is attended in large numbers by the people of the neighbouring villages.

KUDAL.

Kuḍāḷ (Kuḍāḷ Peta, 16° 00′ 73° 40′ E; p. 5852), is head-quarters of Kuḍāḷ peta. It is on the Kārli river, thirteen miles north of Sāvantvāḍī. Every Wednesday, a market is held chiefly for cattle, fish, pottery and vegetables. It is connected with Vāḍī, Mālvaṇ and Veṅgurlē by a good road, and with Kolhāpūr by the Phondā Ghāṭ and has a post office, a primary school, a high school and a general library. As far back as the sixth century (about 578), Kuḍāḷ was the head-quarters of a branch of Chālukyās.[2] In the twelfth century, it was the seat of a Marāṭhā baron, *Pāligar*,[3] and continued to be the chief town of the district up to the Musalman conquest (1500).[3] Under the Bijāpūr kings its ruler was, with the title of Desāi of Kuḍāḷ continued as the head of twelve sub-divisions, each governed by a *nāik*.[4] In modern times (1748), Kuḍāḷ was the scene of a severe defeat of Tuḷājī Āṅgre by Jayarām Sāvant. And a few years later, Jayarām, quarrelling with his nephew Rāmchandra Sāvant (1737-1755), the Vāḍī chief, retired here and exercised independent authority. In 1804, in the dispute between Phoṇḍ Sāvant III, and Shrirām Sāvant, the Kolhāpūr chief coming to Phoṇḍ Sāvant's help, seized Kuḍāḷ and laid the country waste.

Fort.

On rising ground to the west of the town is a ruined fort of loose stone and mud, with bastions and connecting curtains. It is said to have been built or repaired by the Bijāpūr kings. Irregular in shape, it covers an area of about 160 square yards, and is encircled by a ditch. In the south-east corner, are three gateways of no great strength, and on the west is a sallyport with a narrow ruined gateway. Its few guns of different sizes are all unserviceable. Within

---

[1] Nairne in Ind. Ant. II. 317.
[2] Ind. Ant. VII. 161.
[3] Jervis' Konkan, 81.
[4] Bom. Gov. Sel. X. 154.

the fort are a ruined mosque, still sometimes used, and a fine cut masonry well called *ghoḍā bāv*, forty feet deep and 100 round. It is called the horse's well, *ghoḍā bāv*, because the path to the water is broad and slanting enough to allow a ridden horse to go down and drink. Though ruined, some of the walls of the fort are still standing (1960). The Mahalkari's office is housed inside the fort. The civic affairs of the town are looked after by a village pañchāyat.

KUNKERI.

Kuṅkeri (Sāvantvāḍī T.; p. 859), a village about six miles north-east of Vāḍī, has a yearly fair on the seventh of *Phālgun Shudh* (March). At that time four men climb up a tall teak-wood pillar, and people standing round throw stones at them, but it is said, by the favour of the deity, none of them is ever hurt.

KUPICHA DONGAR.

Kupīchā Doṅgar (Kuḍāḷ Peta), is an unfortified hill, about 1,000 feet high, near the village of Vālāval (Kuḍāḷ Peta, p. 3320) on the banks of the Kārlī river in Kuḍāḷ. Its quarries yield good white granite even to-day (1960).

MACHAL.

Māchāḷ (Lāñjē Peta; p. 301), near the village is the lofty hill of Māchāl, a few miles south of the Ratnāgirī-Kolhāpūr Road through the Ambā Ghāṭ. This hill is separated from Vishāḷgaḍ fort and the main Sahyādrī range by a narrow gorge. Crowned with a level plateau three and a half miles long and one and a half broad, and freely supplied with water, it is well suited for a sanatorium. According to the local story, in a narrow-mouthed cave on the western side of the hill, there lived the famous sage Muchkund. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 55 miles to the south-east.

MAHADEVGAD.

Mahādevgaḍ (Sāvantvāḍī T.), is a small weak fort, on an outstanding peak of the Sahyādris, about a mile and a half from Āmbolī at the top of the Pārpolī Ghāṭ. In 1830, it was entered from the east by two narrow gateways, flanked with three small towers and secured by wooden bars. The approaches to the entrance were narrow and difficult. Within gunshot of the fort, in an open space with some water, were two small hillocks which commanded the fort. The fort has come down but the remains speak of its past glory. The ground inside has been turned into a meadow, and along a road from Āmbolī carriages can be driven to the end of the spurs. From the top there is a fine view of the Koṅkaṇ, and in clear weather the sea is seen at a distance of about thirty miles. The height is about 2,500 feet and the space covered by the fort about twenty acres.

MHAPRAL.

Mhāpraḷ (Manḍangaḍ T.; 18° 00′ N, 73° 15′ E; p. 2820), on the Sāvitrī river, eighteen miles from Bāṇkoṭ and ten miles from Mahāḍ in Kolaba, was formerly an important Musalman town. It has a well attended weekly market for the sale of salt-fish and vegetables. Vessels of sixteen feet draught can at all states of the tide run up the Sāvitrī to Mhāpraḷ. Between Mhāpraḷ and Mahāḍ the navigation is difficult as the river narrows and shoals with

many rocky ledges and reefs[1]. There is an all-weather motorable road from Mhāpraḷ to near Polādpūr, the meeting place of two fine roads through the Varandh and Fitzerald Ghāṭs.

MAHIPATGAD FORT.

Mahipatgaḍ Fort (Kheḍ T.; 15° 50′ N, 74° 20′ E; p. 6477), about 19 miles from Kheḍ, facing the Hātloṭ pass and Makrandgaḍ, the Mahābaḷeshvar 'Saddle back' stands at the head of a high spur, and running parallel to the Sahyādris is crowned by the three forts of Mahipatgaḍ, Sumārgaḍ, and Rasāḷgaḍ. Reached by a very narrow difficult pass six miles long,[2] in 1880, Mahipatgaḍ was a table-land 120 acres in area, with no surrounding wall, but with well-built battlements and gateways in six places where the approach was easy. The defences were in bad repair, the wood work had gone, and in many places the stone work was in ruins. On all sides the table-land was surrounded by the village of Beldarvaḍī[3]. There were six gates, to the north, the Kotvāl gate formed by two battlements one on each side and joined with parts of the ramparts: to the north-east the Red gate, *Lāl Devḍi*; to the east the Pusati gate formerly entered by a ladder; to the south-east the Yeshvant gate and a thirty feet high battlement; to the south the Khed gate with traces of the path by which the garrison used to receive its supplies; and to the west the Shivgaṅgā gate called after a *liṅg* at the source of a rivulet. At the entrance of the south or Kheḍ gate, was the foundation of a temple of Mārutī and Gaṇapati, its walls half standing, half fallen. Here according to one account, there were 360, and according to another 700 stables[4]. Further on was a stone house forty-five feet long by fifty-four broad, and a temple of Pāreshvar, a very strong building about twenty feet long by thirty-eight broad. The six gates and the battlements have come down. There are cracks on the walls, due to heavy rainfall. It enjoys a yearly grant of Rs. 15. In the temple enclosure, are two ponds, with, on their banks, some engraved stones. The local story that the fort was begun and left half finished by Shivaji is supported by the heaps of mortar piled in several parts of the enclosure. The rough and uneven ground within the fort is over-grown with thorn bushes and other brushwood.

---

[1] Collector's 4430, dated 12th December 1877.

[2] The most direct practicable route from the northward is by the main road as far as the Government bungalow at Poladpur, whence to the left a path leads over broken ground, and after sighting the fort, winds among and over steep hills. Pursuing this pathway southwards, it is necessary to pass, at a distance of one and a half miles, along the whole west side of the fort. Reaching the valley, the ascent is gained over projecting spurs on the west and leading over the south continuation of the range the path winds over spurs on the eastern side of it, and reaches two hamlets, whence a steep pathway leads to the top. It is about four miles from the beginning of the ascent on the west to the interior of the fort. Report on Mahipatgad, 1854.

[3] Beldarvadi, bricklayers' suburb, is a strip of rugged land said to have been assigned to certain bricklayers brought by Shivajī to build the fort.

[4] Foundations of this sort are found all over the fort.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. MAHIPATGAD Fort.

At present (1960), some Christians inhabit the fort area and there are to be seen a number of Christian tombs. From the fort one gets a good view of the red tiled steep roofed bungalows of Mahābaḷeshvar in the day time and twinkling lights on the slopes of Mahābaḷeshvar hills in the night. The village of Beldārvaḍī surrounding the table-land is also clearly visible. Some of the villages on the border of Sātārā and Kolābā districts are easy to locate.

MAIMATGAD FORT.

Maimatgad (Sangameshwar T.), perched on the top of a very high and steep spur of the Sahyādri range, in the village of Nigudvāḍī (p. 418), about six miles east of the village of Devrukh and 2½ miles south of the Kuṇḍī pass, covers an area of about sixty acres. Provisions can be got from a village close by. In 1862, it was in a very ruinous state. At present (1960), the fort walls and the outer wall are in good condition. Water is available in sufficient quantities in five small ponds. There are four small sized guns on the fort. The old temple of Bhagavatī, was renovated recently.

MALGAON.

Malganv (Sāvantvādī T.; p. 3190), Village Malganv is situated three miles to the west of Sāvantvāḍī. There are three primary schools in the village. There are three bidi factories and three flour mills. There is a school for giving training in pottery in the village. The nearest railway station is Beḷgāum, 65 miles to the east.

MALGUND.

Mālguṇḍ (Ratnāgirī T.; 17° 05′ N, 73° 15′ E.; p. 3312), is a coastal village lying 32 miles north of Ratnāgirī. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 98 miles to the south-east. State transport buses run from Ratnāgirī to Malguṇḍ. Agriculture is the main occupation of the village. There are five temples of which that of Gaṇapati at Gaṇapatipuḷē[2] (a hamlet of Māḷguṇḍ), is famous. There is a secondary school and four primary schools in the village. Grants under the community development programme are given to various institutions for carrying on recreational and cultural activities. There is a primary health sub-centre, a veterinary aid centre, a tailoring school and a coir training school. A road from Māḷguṇḍ to Niveṇḍī was constructed under the community development programme.

MALVAN.

Mālvan[2] (16° 00′ N, 73° 25′ E; p. 29851), a municipal town formed by 11 villages is the headquarters of the Mālvaṇ taluka and a busy minor port. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 90 miles to the north-east. In a bay, almost entirely blocked by rocky reefs, there were formerly three small islands, two of them about a quarter of a mile from the shore, and the third separated

[1] *Government List of Civil Forts, 1862.*

* See Gaṇapatipuḷē.

[2] The name Mālvan is said to come from the great salt marshes, mahā lavaṇ to the east of the town. Mr. C. Vidal, C. S.

from the mainland by a narrow channel. On the larger of the two outer islands stands the famous fort of Sindhudurg, and on the smaller, the ruined fort of Padmāgaḍ, now, at low tide, connected with the mainland by a neck of sand. On what once was the inner island and is now part of the mainland, lies, almost hid in palms, the old town of Mālvaṇ[1]. The cost is very rocky and foul. Abreast the fort, a large ship should not anchor in less than eight fathoms. With a south wind the landing is best in the little bay to the north of Mālvaṇ point, and with a north-west wind in the Mālvaṇ harbour. On a sunken rock marked with a buoy, a quarter of a mile from the north and of Sindhudurg island, the small steamer *Johnston Castle* was totally wrecked in 1865[2]. The course is marked by buoys, and by night is shown by a red light fixed to a boat in the harbour and a green light on shore, which must be kept in one line by ships entering or leaving the port.

Salt for local use and for export is made at the pans to the east of the town. Good pottery is also made from China clay found to the east of the town.

Of the total population of 29,851, according to the Census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 5,276 and the non-agricultural classes 24,575. Of the latter, 10,467, persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 3,537 persons from commerce; 1,335 persons from transport; and 9,236 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

Mālvaṇ municipality was established in 1918. It has an area of 2¼ square miles and is now governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. There are 21 members in the municipal council. Two seats are reserved for women, one seat rotating in ward Nos. 1 to 3 and the other seat in ward Nos. 4 to 6. Besides the managing committee, the municipality has other committees for sanitation, dispensary, market, *baug*, school and gymnastics.

For the year 1956-57, the total income of the Mālvaṇ municipality excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 2,19,567-1-8, municipal rates and taxes being Rs. 1,90,742-8-10, realisation under Special Acts, Rs. 325-13-6, revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxes, Rs. 11,576-6-2, interest Rs. 184-8-0 grants and contributions, Rs. 15,008-15-2, local funds Rs. 1,443-1-0 and miscellaneous Rs. 285-13-0. The total expenditure incurred during the year 1956-57, excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,66,430-7-9, general administration and collection charges being Rs. 35,855-0-9, public safety Rs. 19,983-9-9, public health and convenience, Rs. 1,01,862-5-6, public instruction Rs. 8,025-0-0, contribution Rs. 35-0-0 and miscellaneous Rs. 669-7-9.

---

[1] This inner land was called Meḍhā, , but the channel separating it from the main land has been long dried up. This island stretched from a point about a quarter of a mile to the north of the old Residency to the site of the custom house on the south, and in it stood the old fort of Rājkoṭ. The modern town of Mālvaṇ has spread far beyond the limits of the former island.

[2] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 390.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

MALVAN.

Municipality.

There are no water works. The chief source of water supply is wells. Most of the inhabitants have their own wells which supply them with sufficient water. There is one water sprinkler, owned by the municipality.

Education is compulsory in the town. The District School Board, Ratnāgiri, manages primary education, the municipality paying its annual statutory contribution. There are three high schools, one training college for women and a library in the town.

There is one fish market and one vegetable market.

There is one Municipal dispensary, located at Dhurivāḍā, Mālvaṇ. Government runs one veterinary dispensary located in Devulvāḍā.

The municipality manages seven cremation grounds. The Muslim and the Christian communities look after their burial places respectively.

Mālvaṇ has near the sea-side, a fort named "Sindhudurg" built by Shivāji.

History.

Though its chief interest is the fort of Sindhudurg, Malvaṇ has for long been a place of considerable trade[1]. In the sixteenth century it is mentioned as a centre of traffic, with a high road to the Sahyādri hills[2]. About the middle of the seventeenth century. when Shivāji fortified Sindhudurg, the creek about a mile and a half north of Mālvaṇ was navigable, some miles up to Maland or Milāndī, then a place of considerable trade[3]. In 1750, under the name Molundi, it is mentioned as a fortified town belonging to Bhonsle, from whom, in 1746, and the two following years, it was taken by the Portuguese Viceroy, Pierre Michael Almeyda, who chased the pirates inland[4]. In 1765, the English stipulated that they should be allowed to have a factory at Mālvaṇ[5]. After its capture by the English in 1766, Mālvaṇ on payment of Rs. 3,82,896 for loss and expenses, was restored to Kolhāpūr[6]. In 1792, the English again arranged to have a factory at Mālvaṇ[5]. Since its cession by the Kolhāpūr chief (1812), Mālvaṇ remained under the British.

Sindhudurg.

The chief object of interest is Shivāji's fortress and coast capital, Sindhudurg, or the Ocean Fort. On a low island about a mile from

[1] The similarity of the name Melizigeris, the island of Melis, and the fact that the chief export was pepper (Lessen Ind. Ant. I. 327), would seem to make it probable that Ptolemy's (150) island of Melizigeris, and the Periplus mart of Melizeigara and perhaps Pliny's (77) Zegerus, and Strabo's Sigerdis, were the island-town of Milandi or Mālvaṇ. Later on Ibn Khurdadba (900) mentions Mali, an island five days south of Sañjān in the north of Thana (Elliot, I. 15), and Al Biruni (1030) has Malia south of Saimur, that is Chaul in Kolaba (Elliot, I. 60). The Arab travellers may refer to Mālvaṇ or Milandi, but more likely to the Malbar coast. Compare El Idrisi (1150), in Elliot, I. 85.

[2] Bom. Bov. Sel. New Series, X. 156.

[3] Nairne's Ms. Dom. Joao de Castro (1538) mentions that at low tide galleys could enter the river of Maluṇḍī. Prim Rot. da Costa da India, 22.

[4] Tieffenthaler, Res. Hist. at Geog. I. 412.

[5] Grant Duff, 509.

[6] Graham's Kolhapur, 497.

the shore, though less striking than Suvarṇadurg, it is very extensive[1], a little less than two miles round the ramparts. The walls are low, ranging from twenty-nine to thirty feet.[2] They are on an average twelve feet thick, and have about fifty-two towers from forty to 130 yards apart. The western side of the outer wall is now broken by dashing waves which have caused a breach of 20 feet in it.

The towers are generally outstanding semi-circles with fine embrasures for cannon, within most a flat seat on the parapet, and stones projecting inwards drilled with flag staff holes. Forty-five staircases lead from the inside to the top of the walls. The outer wall is zigzag and was constructed in such a way as to facilitate the attack on the enemy. The entrance is at the north-east corner.[3] It was constructed in such a way that it could not be easily detected by the enemy. There is a temple of Mārutī near the gate. The area of the fort is forty-eight acres. Once full of buildings, it is now a mere shell with nothing inside but a few small temples of Bhavānī, Mahādeo, Jarimāi and Mahāpurush and Shivājī.[4] To the Marāṭhās Sindhudurg is Shivājī's cenotaph[5] and in its chief shrine Shivājī's image is worshipped. The temple of Shivājī which is only of its kind in India, is 45 feet in length and 23 feet in breadth. It was constructed in the regime is of Rājārām, the second son of Shivājī (1689-1700). The image is of black stone, and the head is covered with a silver, or, on high days, with a gold mask. This image can in no way be compared with existing images of Shivājī. It is without a beard and has a round face with a sailor's cap on the head on every Monday. In the stone of the walls, prints of Shivājī's hands and feet are held in

---

[1] The figure of the fort is highly irregular with many projecting points and deep indentations. This arrangement has the advantage that not a single point outside of the rampart is not commanded from some point inside. South Konkan Forts, 1828.

[2] On the sea side so low are the walls that at one place they seem almost below high water level, and inside of the fort are masses of wave-worn rock and stretches of sand. Nairne's MS.

[3] In 1828, the north and east faces were in very fair repair. A few fig trees had here and there made their appearance, but they were of no great size. The state of the west and south faces was deplorable. In no part of either of them was the parapet entire, in most places it had been washed away by the beating of the monsoon so as to leave not above two feet remaining, and in many parts it was destroyed clear away from the level of the ground and the whole of the terreplein or cannon platform was also washed away leaving great blocks of rough stones. A large stretch of the west and smaller parts of the south wall were undermined. It was doubtful if the west wall would stand many years more. In spite of repairs the buildings of the fort were, except the magazine and gateway, in a wretched state almost falling down (Southern Konkan, Forts, 1828). Considerable repairs must have been carried out, as in 1862 the walls and bastions were, with few exceptions, in fair order. There was no garrison, water was abundant and supplies easily obtained. In the fort were nineteen old guns. Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

[4] In the 1862 list the area is given at thirty-one acres and it was said to contain thirteen houses, three temples, and one rest-house. Govt. List of Civil Forts.

[5] Grant Duff in Nairne's MS.

CHAPTER 20.
—
Places.
MALVAN.
Sindhudurg.

reverence and protected by small domes.[1] Besides the temple buildings, the fort contains the huts of a few Gābits who have rented from Government the numerous cocoanut palms that grow within the walls. Inside the fort, near the temple stands a solitary *adausonia digitata, gorakh chinch* tree. The temple or shrine was supported formerly by a yearly cash allowance of Rs. 1,522 assigned, in 1812, by the Kolhāpūr cheif through his minister Ratnākar Appā.[2] The same has been continued by the Government of Mahārashtra. Every year fairs are held on the 9th day of *Chāitra* and on Shiv Jayantī. There are four wells and two tanks of drinking water. There is also a small primary school in the fort.

About the middle of the seventeenth century (1665), failing in his efforts to take Jañjirā from the Sidī, Shivājī chose Mālvaṇ with its rocky islands and roof-blocked harbour as his coast head-quarters.[3] Besides the main fortress on the larger of the outer islands, at which he is said to have worked with his own hands, he fortified the smaller island Padmagaḍ, and on the mainland opposite the town and at the mouth of the creek about a mile and a half north, built the forts of Rājkoṭ and Sarjekoṭ.[4] At the time (1713) of the division of Shivājī's dominions between the Kolhāpūr and Sātārā families, Mālvaṇ fell to the Kolhāpur chiefs, and under them became the head-quarters of the most active and destructive of the coast pirates.[5]

[1] But for their exceeding smallness these imprints are very accurate representations of a hand and foot. Mr. R. B. Worthington, C. S.

[2] Nairne's MS. Monday is the chief day for Shivaji's worship and the Kolhapur chief sends turbans and other presents. The shrine is seldom visited by pilgrims and is not honoured by a fair. Mr. G. Vidal, C. S.

[3] The difficulty of the harbour entrance, and the care taken in fortifying the land approach raise the belief that Shivājī meant Mālvaṇ as a place of refuge should he be brought to extremities. Nairne's MS.

[4] Grant Duff, I. 188 and Nairne's MS.

[5] Grant Duff, I. 188 and Nairne's MS Of the Mālvaṇ pirates Milburn (Oriental Commerce, I. 296) gives the following details: In the seventeenth and early years of the eighteen centuries Mālvaṇ was the headquarters of pirates known as Mālvanis, a very cruel race, according to Grant Duff, the most active and desperate of all the coast corsairs. None but the Rājā fitted out vessels which were of three kinds, galivats, shebars and grabs. The galivat had generally two masts, was decked fore and aft, had square top sails and topgallant sails and was rigged mostly in European fashion. The shebar had also two masts the aftermast and bowsprit very short, no top masts, very little rigging and was not decked Its largest sail was stretched on a yard of very great length running to a point many feet higher than the mast. They sailed well and were fine vessels in fair weather and smooth water. Many were more than 150 tons burden. The grab had instead of bows, a projecting prow, either two or three masts, and was decked and rigged in European fashion. Vessels of all kinds carried eight or ten small guns and about 100 men. Their favourite rendezvous was at Pigeon Island. They generally went on fifteen-day cruises, the common seaman at starting getting Rs. 2 and the captains Rs. 5. On their return they get grain and Rs. 3 to Rs. 4, or more, according to their rank and good fortune. Prizes were the property of the chief, but unless very well suited for service they were generally released. They sailed with no written commission and with instructions to take any vessel they could master except such as had English colours and passes. Sometimes they seized boats under English protection, evading the open assault by sending on some boats, who, examining the pass, contrived to steal or lose it and make off. Soon after, the rest of the pirates came up and seized the trader. In many cases restitution was demanded by the British Government and made without demur.

Sindhudurg.

About 1710, Hamilton[1] describes the Chief as an independent free-booter who kept three or four *grabs* to rob all whom he could master. In October 1715, his boats attacked two vessels, in one of which was Mr. Strutt, Deputy Governor of Bombay, but seven shots scared them away[2]. In 1730, the pirates of Mālvaṇ seized on an English wreck. This caused much dispute, but at last a treaty was concluded with Shaṅkar Pant, the governor and commander-in-chief of Mālvaṇ.[3] A British expedition was sent against Sindhudurg. It reduced the fort, and intending to keep it, gave it the name of Fort Augustus. But as it was unprofitable and very hard to dismantle, the fort was given back of to Kolhāpūr Chief, on his promising not to molest trade, to give security for his future good conduct, to pay the Bombay Government a sum of Rs. 3,82,890 and to let the English establish a factory at Mālvaṇ.[4] In the beginning of the nineteenth century the Mālvaṇ pirates were as troublesome to the British as ever. Towards the close of 1812, however, the British succeeded in rooting them out of the coast.

Pandavgad.

Pāṇḍavgaḍ, the other island fort, or Padmagaḍ or Rāmdurg with an area of one acre, lies about half a mile from the mainland and within a mile of Mālvaṇ. This island, where Shivājī used to build ships, half reef, half sand-bank, with ruins and cocoanut palms, is the prettiest part of Mālvaṇ.[5] In 1882, the walls were very ruinous, there was no garrison, and the supply of water was defective.[6] It is surrounded on all sides by sea. It is said that there was an underground way joining Sindhudurg from this fort. At present (1960), the fort is in ruins.

Rajkot Fort.

Of the two mainland forts Rājkoṭ and Sarjekoṭ, Rājkoṭ Fort stands within the boundaries of the town of Mālvaṇ, on rising ground (1,500′), surrounded on three sides by the sea. It is on the west side of Mālvaṇ. In 1828, Rājkoṭ was a more enclosure of dry stone, open towards the bay and flanked at three corners by towers of cement masonry, then entirely ruinous. Inside it, were several buildings in tolerable repair, and the walls appeared never to have been intended except as a slight protection to them.[7] In 1862, the fort was in several places much broken down, there was no garrison and only one gun.[8] Near it are some buildings of interest, the barracks made in 1812, the old Residency, and probably the factory

---

[1] New Account, I. 247.

[2] Low's Indian Navy, I. 92.

[3] Low's India Navy, I. 116.

[4] Grant Duff, III. 99-100.

[5] Nairne's Konkan, 72. It is said to have been once held by Mahars. Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

[6] Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

[7] Southern Konkan Forts, 1828.

[8] Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

CHAPTER 20. — Places.

established about 1792.[1] There is also a look out office of the Central Excise and a flag is kept to signalise the arrival of ships.

MALVAN. *Sarjekot Fort.*

Sarjekoṭ Fort, about 1¼ miles north of Rājkoṭ in the village of Revaṇḍī on the coast, is washed on the north by the sea and protected on the three other sides by a ditch. In 1862, the walls were in bad repair and there was no garrison and no water.[2] At present (1960) there are walls but the outer walls and bastions have fallen.

Mandangad Fort.

Maṇḍaṇgaḍ Fort (Maṇḍaṇgaḍ T.), on the high hill of the same name about 12 miles in land from Bāṇkoṭ has two forts and a triple stockade with an area of about eight acres.[3] Of the three fortifications, Maṇḍaṇgaḍ proper, with two reservoirs which are now filled with earth, lies to the south, Pārkoṭ is in the middle and Jāmbā, with a dry reservoir still in a good condition, on the north. In 1862, the wells were in several places much ruined.[4] The likeness of the name suggests that Maṇḍaṇgaḍ may be Maṇḍaṇgorā, a town of the Koṅkaṇ coast, as mentioned by Ptolemy (150) and in the Periplus (247). At the same time it seems more probable that Maṇḍaṇgaḍ was on the coast at the mouth of the Bāṇkoṭ creek, on the site of the present villages of Bāgmaṇḍālē and Kolamaṇḍālē.[5] Though they are probably much older, local tradition ascribes Maṇḍaṇgaḍ to Shivāji, Pārkoṭ to the Habshi and Jāmbā to Āṅgrē. They were taken by the British in 1818.

The headquarters of the Maṇḍaṇgaḍ, taluka are at Maṇḍaṇgaḍ.

Manohar Fort.

Manohar Fort (Sāvantvāḍī T.), 18 miles north-east of Vāḍī and on the south of the Raṅgṇā or Prasiddhgaḍ pass is a solid mass of rock about 2,500 feet high, joined to the Deccan by a narrow ridge about two miles long. It is said to have been fortified since the time of the Paṇḍavās,[6] and in good hands is almost impregnable. Triangular in shape, 440 yards long by 350 broad, it has a single entrance approached by a flight of rock-cut steps and guarded by two gateways.

In the 1844 disturbances, the garrison, *gaḍkaris*, of the fort, numbering between 400 and 500 men, espoused the cause of the Kolhāpūr insurgents. On the night of the 10th October, a band of them entered the house of the *subnis* of Gothos, and burnt all his public and private papers. On the following night (11th October) a detachment of them, 200 strong, came out of the fort and attacked

---

[1] The 1755 treaty had a provision for a factory But as the stipulation was repeated in the 1792 agreement, the factory had probably not till then been started. Grant Duff, 509 in Nairne's Konkan 105.

[2] Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

[3] Govt. List of Civil Forts.

[4] Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

[5] Ptolemy's Asia, X ; McCrindle's Periplus. 129.

[6] Clune's Itinerary, 78.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

MANOHAR FORT.

the detachment of the Sāvantvāḍī Local Corps stationed at Dukānvāḍī. The attack was repulsed, and two days after a British regiment came from Veṅgurlē to strengthen the Dukānvāḍī post. But with the aid of the Raṅgṇā garrison, the Manohar rebels attacked Dukānvāḍī, and placed the troops there in great peril. Reinforcements were pushed forward from Sāvantvāḍī, and Colonel, afterwards Sir James Outram, the Political Agent at Kolhāpūr, taking the direction of military operations, pressed and harassed the rebels and destroyed their power in the open country. Still, for two months they continued to hold Manohar. About the close of the year 1844, three companies of a British regiment advancing against Manohar, attacked, and after a severe contest drove the enemy from a strongly stockaded post on Tārgoḷ hill. After this defeat the insurgents abandoned the fort and it was taken (27th January) by the British. When the rebellion was quelled the fortress and its revenues were made over to Vāḍī. The garrison were allowed to keep their lands on certain conditions, but were declared to have forfeited all money claims; and those who lived in Kolhāpūr, were forced to quit Vāḍī, and settle above the Sahyādris.

MANSANTOSH.

Mansantosh (Sāvantvāḍī T.); a small angular fort about fifteen acres in area, is an offshoot of, and about the same height as, the celebrated fort of Manohar, from which it is separated by a chasm 200 yards wide. The fort stands in a good condition even to-day (1960) and there is a road to reach the fort.

MASURE.

Masure (Mālvaṇ T.; p. 9255), is about half way between Mālvaṇ and/or Mālonḍ on the Kaḷvali creek had at one time been wrongly identified with the famous Muziris of Ptolemy (150 A.D.) and Periplus (247 A.D.), then one of the chief places of trade in western India. It is now generally agreed that Muziris was further south on the Malabar coast.[1] It is one of the biggest villages in Ratnāgirī district but has very little trade in chillies, cocoanut, *kokam*, coir and brooms. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 102 miles to the north-east. Masure was in the possession of the Sāvants of Vāḍī up to about 1809, when half the share fell to Kolhāpūr. In 1811, the Kolhāpūr share came into the hands of the British, and in the same year the Vāḍī share was made over to Kolhāpūr. After remaining under Kolhāpūr, till 1845, this half also became British property.[2] In a hamlet close to Masure is a temple of Shri Dev *Bhāradi*, in honour of whom on *Poush Vadya Ekādashī* (January), a fair is held, attended by from 10,000 to 15,000 persons. There is a temple of Vetāḷ, a king of ghosts at Āṅgaṇvāḍī. A wooden idol of Vetāḷ, seven feet high is installed in it.

[1] Muziris has by Forbes, 1783 (or. Mem. IV. 109), and by Renel, 1788 (Map of Hindustan XXXVII), been identified with Mirjan near Kumta in north Kanara; Dr. Caldwell's suggestion (Zmx Dravidian Grammer, Introd. 97), that Muziris is Muyirkatto, the modern Kranganor in Cochin. is, though this is much further south than Ptolemy puts it, now generally accepted (Balfour's Cyclopædia, Muziris; McCrindle's Periplus, 131). Yule (Cathay, II. 374), marks it doubtful.

[2] From local information.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

MARAL.

Māraḷ (Sangameshvar T.; p. 763), lies 10 miles east of Devrukh. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 53 miles to the south-east.

There is a temple of Māleshvar in the village. The local legend says that originally this temple was built at Murādpūr, a village at a distance of about two miles from Devrukh. There was heavy traffic in front of the temple. The temple God, Shiv wanted a lonely place where no one would disturb him. He, therefore, started in search of a quiet place. Long before he could find such a place, darkness fell and the God lost his way and when he called out for help, nobody but a cobbler helped him with a torch. Since then a cobbler has a special privilege when Shiv is taken in procession. A fair is held in honour of God Shiv on the *makar saṅkrānt* day.

There is a waterfall at a distance of about 100 yards from the temple.

MIRYA.

Miryā near Miryā village (Ratnagirī T.; 17° 00′ N, 73° 15′ E; p. 2936), a high headland of bare laterite rock, lighter in colour than the surrounding land and from the north and south looking like an island, lies in the Ratnāgirī taluka about two and a half miles north of Ratnāgirī fort. Its very steep, sea-face, covered with large laterite boulders, ends near the water edge in cliffs of varying height. Miryā peak at its highest part, on which there is an old flag-staff, is 475 feet above the sea.

Between Miyet, the south-west point of the Miryā hill and the Ratnāgirī headland, lies Miryā Bay one and a half miles long and one mile deep, with depths of from four to five fathoms to within a quarter of a mile of the beach. The shore is narrow and sandy covered with cocoa palms and fronted by a ridge of sand hills rising from twenty to thirty feet above high water. It connects the headland of Miryā with the mainland, and behind it is an extensive flat of mud and sand, in many places thickly overgrown with mangrove bushes and covered at spring tides. Through this the Shirgāon creek winds to the town of Ratnāgirī. The entrance to this creek is on the north side of the Miryā headland where it joins the Kāḷbādevī river, a large inlet with, at the north side of its mouth, the village and temple of Kāḷbādevī. Large crafts come up the Shirgāon creek at high water, and lie off a landing place near the town of Ratnāgirī. Part of the new road from Ratnāgirī to Miryā, which runs parallel to this creek, is also used as a wharf for craft. In the north of Miryā Bay is a sunken rock called the Muddle Shoal, which, at low water, has a depth of only five feet. On all sides, shoal water stretches for one and a half cables, but at two cables, there is a depth of six fathoms.

On the north side of Miryā headland is Kāḷbādevī bay in which south-east corner there is, in five fathoms mud, a sheltered anchorage from south-west winds. Here, during the stormy season of 1857,

MIRYA.

troops were safely landed in smooth water.[1] There is an all-weather motorable road from Ratnāgirī to this landing place. The road forms part of the Miryā-Ratnāgirī-Kolhāpūr State Highway. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 78 miles to the north-east.

NANDOS FORT.

Nāndos Fort, in Nāndos village (Mālvaṇ T.); is not more than a quarter of an acre in area. In 1862, it was surrounded by a ditch and was in fair repair. There was no garrison. Water and supplies were abundant.[2] The fort is totally ruined.

NERUR.

Nerur (Kuḍāḷ Peta, p. 7142), is on the Kārli river, three and a half miles west of Kuḍāḷ. Near the village, are two ponds, the larger of which was, in 1877, examined with a view to enlarging it by replacing the earth embankment by a strong masonry dam. The idea had to be given up as the soil proved too weak to bear the weight of the masonry. At present (1960), one of the ponds is used by the people for drinking purposes and the other is kept aside for animals. There is a big temple of God Kāleshvar. Every year a fair is held on *Mahāshivrātri* day when about 2,500 people attend. There is a village panchayat. Bazar is held on every Sunday.

NEVARE

Nevarē (Ratnāgirī T.; 17° 05′ N, 73° 15′ E, p. 4184), village lies on the sea-shore at a distance of 12 miles to the north of Ratnāgirī. The village is surrounded by hills particularly on the north and the south and a small river runs through the village dividing it in two parts. The village Nevarē is connected with Ratnāgirī by Ratnāgirī-Mālguṇḍ Road which is a District Local Board road. There are also two approach roads leading to the village Dhāmaṇsē and Kotavaḍē. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 90 miles to the south-east. Agriculture which is the main occupation of the village keeps the villagers busy only for the rainy season and for the rest of the year they are dependent upon earnings outside their village. There are five temples, two mosques and a primary school in the village. Grants under community development programme are given to various social organizations which carry out recreational and social activities in the village. A little to the north is Gaṇapatīpuḷe where about 250 years ago Govindpant Bundele built and dedicated a temple to Gaṇpatī.

NIVTI FORT.

Nivṭi Fort in the village of *Kocharē* (Vengurlē Peta, p. 3543), 6¼ miles south of Mālvaṇ and eight miles north of Veṅgurlē, stands at the month of a small creek in rather a striking day. Nivṭi is also a minor port.

---

[1] Hydrographic Notice No 17.

[2] Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

CHAPTER 20.
—
Places.

NIVTI FORT.

The volume of traffic that passed through the port in each of the three years 1953-54, 1954-55 and 1955-56, is given below :—

	Imports. (tons.)	Exports. (tons.)
1953-54	124	50
1954-55	130	65
1955-56	84	401

Nivṭī fort, on a very picturesque and well-wooded headland about 150 feet high, is a complete ruin.[1] In 1786, it was taken by the Kolhāpūr troops and soon after restored to Sāvantvāḍī.[2] In the early years of the nineteenth century (1803 and 1810), after being taken and retaken by these rival chiefs, it remained in the end with the Sāvants. In 1818, when British power was established, the southern villages continued to suffer from the raids of the Sāvantvāḍī garrisons of Nivṭī and Reḍī. A British force[3] was sent into the Koṅkaṇ, and on the 4th February 1819, Nivṭī was invested and given up without resistance.[4] The nearest railway station is Beḷgāum, 87 miles to the south-east.

PALGAD FORT.

Pālgaḍ Fort (Kheḍ T.), about one and a half acres in area, stands on the crest of a high hill on the north-west boundary of Kheḍ. In 1862, it was in ruins, with nine old useless guns, of which there is no trace today. It is said to have been built by Shivāji and was taken in 1818 by the British. At the foot near Dāpolī, lies the village of Pālil (Pālgaḍ).

PASSES.

Passes : The chief passes are, Hāṭloṭ, Āmbavalī, North Tivrā. Kumbhārli, Mālā, South Tivrā, Kuṇḍī, Ambā, Vishāḷgaḍ, Shevgaḍ, Phoṇḍā, Āmbolī and Rām.

PAT.

Pāt (Kuḍāḷ Peta, p. 4879), is a large garden village in the west of Kuḍāḷ, ten miles north of Veṅgurlē, and eighteen miles north-west of Vāḍī. It has a fine natural lake bordered by betel-nut and palm groves, which is said, during the rains, to cover an area of about 83 acres. For many years its water has, during the cold season, been used to irrigate land in the neighbouring villages of Mhāpaṇ and Kochre. Seedlings are prepared in the lake before the rainy season and in the monsoon they are taken out and are sown in the fields. There is an embankment with sluice-gates on the north-east.

---

[1] Nairne's Konkan, 105.

[2] A wing of the 89th Regiment; 2½ battalions Indian infantry; 3 troops of Indian cavalry and artillery. Nairne's Konkan, 127.

[3] The details were : the head-quarters of the IVth Rifles, crossing the river at Kārlī, arrived before Nivṭī on the 2nd February 1819. On the 3rd the batteries opened and on the following day the fort capitulated and was taken. Service Record of H. M.'s IV Rifles, 29.

[4] Gov. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

PAVAS.

Pāvas (Ratnāgirī T.; p. 3540), lying eight miles to the south of Ratnāgirī has a river running through it. The village is separated from Ratnāgiri by the Bhāṭye creek. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 92 miles to the south-east. The land is generally fertile. Some irrigated crops are raised on river water. There are also gardens of cocoanuts, betel-nuts and mangoes. Ranpār, the nearest harbour lies only at a distance of three miles. Agriculture is the main occupation of the village. Besides, people also undertake gardening and fishing. There are nine temples, four mosques, one secondary school and four primary schools in the village. Besides there is a primary health centre and a veterinary aid centre. Grants are given to various organisations to enable them to carry on recreational and social activities in the village.

PEDHE OR PARSHURAM.

Peḍhe or Parshrām (Chipḷūṇ T.; 17° 30′ N, 73° 30′ E; p. 1970), is a village on the north bank of the Vāsishṭhī opposite Chipḷūṇ and the island and fort of Govaḷ The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, about 55 miles to the south-east. On a high hill slope commanding a fine view of the river and close to the provincial road from Chipḷūṇ to Kheḍ and Polādpūr, the village is celebrated as the seat of the ancient shrine of the Koṅkaṇ reclaimer Parashurām, and as the traditional birth-place of Chitpāvan Brāhmaṇs, whose headquarters lie in the tract round Dāpoli, Kheḍ and Chipḷūṇ.[1]

Before the time of Parashurām, so runs the story, the sea washed the Sahyādri cliffs, Parashurām, who was a Brāhmaṇ subdued the Kshatriyas and gave away all the lands above the Sahyādris, by shooting an arrow out to sea and reclaimed the Koṅkaṇ for his own use.[2] The chief temple, dedicated to Bhārgavrām or Parashurām, is a central shrine surrounded by two smaller buildings. At the back of the

[1] Of the Chitpāvans, details are given in Chapter III.

[2] The story of Parashurām is that he was the son of the Brāhman sage Jamadagni Parashurām's mother and the wife of the great Kshatriya king, Sahasrarjun, were sisters. The sage Jamadagni was poor, and his wife was forced to do all the household duties with her own hands. One day, fetching water, she thought of her sister's grandeur and her own poverty. As she was thus thinking the pitcher became empty. The sage asked her why her pitcher was empty, and when she told him how the water had leaked away, he blamed her for thinking her sister's state better than her own. She said; 'If I want to ask my sister there is hardly food for ten men'. 'I have' the sage replied, 'food for ten thousand, but I do not think it wise to call a Kshatriya to dinner'. She pleaded that they should be asked, and her sister and her husband came with a large following. From his wish-fulfilling cow and never empty jar the sage satisfied the king and all his men. Learning the source of the sage's store of food, the king carried off the cow and the jar, and killed the sage, forcing him to lie on a bed of pointed nails. Grieved with the result of her foolishness the sage's wife committed suicide. Thus orphaned Parashurām vowed vengeance on the Kshatriyas. Attacking them with his axe, *Parashu*, he broke their power, slew all who did not forfeit their birthright by mixing with the Shudras, and gave the whole of their lands to Brāhmaṇs. Finding that he had left no land for himself, he prayed the sea, which then washed the Sahyādri cliffs, to cast him up a kingdom. The sea refused and Parashurām determined to drive it back. Standing on the Sahyādris he shot an arrow westward and before it the sea retired. But the sea-God had sent a friendly bee to bore Parashurām's bow-string, and the arrow fell short reclaiming only a strip about forty miles broad.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. PEDHE OR PARSHURAM.

enclosure is a reservoir called in honour of Parashurām's shooting the arrow spring, *bāṇ gaṅgā*. The temple, with a yearly income of about Rs. 2,500 from cash allowances and the revenues of three villages, is visited by many pilgrims on their way from Banāras, Dvārkā and other sacred places to the shrine of Rāmeshvara in the extreme south. Every morning the idol is bathed and dressed. A yearly festival on the third day of the first fortnight of *Vāishākh* (April-May) is attended by more than a thousand people.

PHURUS.

Phurus (Kheḍ T.; p. 2136), situated on the Kheḍ-Dāpoli road is a village which comes under national extension service scheme. There is an Urdu primary school and a secondary school and the children's park was built in 1958. The *mahilā maṇḍaḷ* and the youth club conduct social, cultural activities in the village. A weaving and spinning school in the village is managed by the District Local Board. There is a poultry centre in the village where training in poultry-keeping is given. The village is provided with a well and a recreation room with a radio-set, under National Extension Service Scheme. The village library is run by the village panchāyat. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 92 miles to the south-east.

PORTS.

Ports.—The Ratnāgirī seaboard, stretching north and south for 160 miles, contains 20 ports and harbours. Of these nine – Bāṇkoṭ, Harṇāi Chiplūṇ, Saṅgmeshvar, Ratnāgirī, Rājāpūr, Khārepāṭaṇ, Mālvaṇ and Veṅgurlē—are places of some trade and consequence, the rest are small, offering during the fair season more or less complete shelter to coasting craft, but with little or no trade.

Ratnāgirī ports are of two classes, coastal ports on sheltered days and river mouths, and inland ports up tidal creeks generally at the point where navigation ceases. Dābhoḷ in former times, and now Ratnāgirī Mālvan and Vengurlē are exceptions. But from the ruggedness of the inland country, and in former times from their freedom from pirate attacks, trade had always centred at the inland harbours The coast settlements have been little more than fishing villages with, in the fair season, some stranger merchants and small traffic, chiefly in salt and grain.

PRASIDDHAGAD.

Prasiddhagaḍ or **Rāṅgṇā Fort** (Kuḍāḷ T.), on the Sāvantvāḍī and Kolhāpūr boundary, stands on a peak of the Sahyādris. about eighteen miles north of Mahādevgaḍ, and is 2,600 feet high. Rāṅgṇā was one of fifteen forts built by a chief of Panhāḷā near Kolhāpūr, who seems to have lived at the close of the twelfth century. In the beginning of the eighteenth century (1709), Tārābāī took refuge in the fort and was unsuccessfully besieged by Shāhū, the grandson of Shivājī.[1]

PURNGAD.

Purṇgad (Ratnāgirī T.; p. 548), is a village on the brow of a barren point at the mouth of the Muchkuṇḍī river, twelve miles

---

[1] Grant Duff, (13), 187.

south of Ratnāgirī, used wrongly to be called Rājāpūr.[1] The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 95 miles to the south-east. Purṇgaḍ is a small port with little trade.

The volume of traffic that passed through the port in 1954-55 and 1955-56 is given below :—

		Imports. (tons)	Exports. (tons)
1954-55	..	2,233	1,639
1955-56	..	2,740	1,873

On the top of the hill is the small square fort of Purṇgaḍ without outworks, covering an area of twenty-two acres. Under the Peshvā's government no revenue was exacted from fields within the fort as they were brought into cultivation by fort men, *gaḍkaris*. At present (1959) nothing remains of the fort except its outer wall in a dilapidated condition. Even at high tide, the river admits only very small coasting crafts, which ply as far as Sātavalī, about 12 miles inland.[2]

RAJAPUR.

Rājāpūr (Rājāpūr T. ; 16° 35′ N, 73° 30′ E ; p. 8,023), the headquarters of Rājāpūr taluka is built on a slope rising from the water's edge, at the head of a tidal creek, thirty miles south-east of Ratnāgirī and about fifteen miles from the sea. Rājāpūr is not now the port as it once was. Vessels cannot ply within three miles of the old stone quay. The bay, about three quarters of a mile broad, passes inland for about a mile between steep laterite cliffs. It is broken into several small coves and inlets, into the largest of which, Tuḷsaṇḍā, on the south side, small vessels caught in a south-west gale can run. Well sheltered from north-west gales, with westerly winds a heavy short swell makes it, except on the north side, a not very safe anchorage.[3] Local vessels discharge and load at Jāitāpūr on the left bank of the river about four miles from the entrance, which among early European travellers shared with Rājāpūr, the honour of naming the river. There is only seven or eight feet of water on the bar at low tide, but further in abreast Jāitāpūr are depths of from fifteen to twenty-four feet.

The oldest looking and best preserved town in the Koṅkaṇ, its streets are steep and narrow and the markets paved and roofed. The old English factory, a massive stone building with an enclosure lead-

[1] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 389.

[2] Dom Joao de Castro (1538), calling it the river of Betel, because much betel grew on its bank, describes it as having good water and a large open mouth. The roadstead on the north was a gunshot from the rock. Primeiro Roteiro da Costa da India, 33.

[3] It is high water at full and change of the moon at 10 hours 45 minutes. Ordinary mean springs rise six feet five inches, neaps rise four feet five inches. Bom. Gov. Gazette, 3rd July 1879, 701.

ing to the sea, now used as a Government office, and another equally large ruined European building probably the French Factory, give the town a special interest. The mamlatdar's office is situated in the old Dutch factory, purchased by English in 1699. It was closed in 1707. It was once a peculiar Ratnāgirī port through which Arabs carried on their trade directly.[1] Now no foreign trader carries on trade through this port. The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 80 miles to the south-east.

During the last century in the fair season active communication was kept up between Bombay, and the Deccan. Every year a few Arab vessels from Zanzibar and the African coast brought fresh and dry dates to exchange for *gūḷ* and other produce. Now from Bombay piecegoods, metals and miscellaneous commodities, and from Malabar, cocoanuts and betelnuts are imported for local use and for through carriage to the Deccan. From the Deccan, to meet local wants come food grains, cotton cloth, molasses, turmeric, chillies, tobacco, clarified butter, edible oil, and other products. Mangoes and betelnuts are exported outside. The town is situated on the Bombay-Konkan-Goa National Highway, 48 miles away from Ratnāgirī. It is connected with Kolhāpūr by road. The system of trade was similar to that at Chipḷūṇ and other old fashioned isolated Koṅkaṇ towns. Business was in the hands of local merchants. Formerly it was an important trade centre. Goods from the Deccan and Bombay were consigned to the local merchants. On arrival they were sold and re-sold to petty dealers, continually changing hands until they were distributed amongst the consumers or re-exported. The through trade was limited to the fair season (October-May), and as at Chipḷūṇ, during this busy time a large trading camp was formed, every available space near the market and the landing place being filled by temporary booths and warehouses. The conditions are now changed. It is not so important a town as it was once. All essential commodities of life are imported and only mangoes and betelnuts, cashew-nuts and other forest products are exported. The chief streets are well-kept and paved, and the permanent shops are substantially built. During the hot months, March, April and May the streets are shaded from the sun by a continuous canopy of plaited cocoanut leaves, stretching from house to house and making a temporary arcade.

Communications.

There is direct communication with Kolhāpūr and the neighbouring Deccan districts by a provincial motorable road through the Phoṇḍā Ghāṭ towards Nipāṇī, and by an easy road over the Aṇaskurā Ghāṭ.

There are no industries in the town except fruit canning. Mango fruits are sliced and canned and are sent to U.S.A

[1] Nairne's Konkan, 121.

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

RAJAPUR.

Population.

Of the total population of 8,023, according to the Census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 1,137 and the non-agricultural classes 6,886. Of the latter, 1,086 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 2,118 persons from commerce; 388 persons from transport; and 3,294 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

Established in 1940, Rājāpūr Municipality has an area of 2·39 square miles. It is composed of 11 members and is now governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. Besides the managing committee, there are committees for schools, dispensary and sanitation.

The annual income of the municipality for 1956-57, excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 95,776; from municipal rates and taxes Rs. 85,617; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 1,873; grants and contributions Rs. 6,769; and miscellaneous Rs. 1,517. The expenditure for the same year, excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 79,351; general administration and collection charges being Rs. 18,915; public safety Rs. 17,180; public health and convenience Rs. 37,707; grants and contributions Rs. 300; and miscellaneous Rs. 5,249.

Water supply in the town is mostly from private and public wells, municipal water works and tanks. The municipality has constructed one dam at Koḍavli, from which water is carried to the town reservoir through pipes.

There are 6,931 ft. of underground and 18,091 of open drains in the town. During the year 1956-57, the municipality had constructed new drains, measuring 127 ft., out of which some are *kaccha* and some are stone-lined gutters. Water is collected in 25 cesspools, connected to the houses.

For fire-fighting the municipality has purchased one fire-fighter-*cum*-water-sprinkler, the same being also employed for sprinkling water on the streets.

The town has three furlongs of asphalted road, five miles, one furlong and 142 feet metalled and one mile six furlongs unmetalled.

Primary education in the town is managed by the District School Board, the municipality paying its annual statutory contribution. Rājāpūr High School is run by the Shikshan Prasārak Maṇḍal, the municipality paying an annual contribution of Rs. 1,000.

There is one allopathic dispensary called "Rājāpūr Municipal Dispensary" situated in ward No. 1. One veterinary dispensary run by Government is situated in ward No. 4. The municipality runs a maternity home which extends free service.

(G.C.P.) L-B Vf 4174—50

CHAPTER 20. — Places. RAJAPUR.

There are six burial places and six cremation grounds, all managed by the respective communities. Four are situated in ward No. 1, one in ward No. 2, three in ward No. 3, and four in ward No. 4.

Municipality.

The town has some places of interest like the Puṇḍalik Temple, Pāṇḍavas' Temple and the old English factory building now used as the Mamlatdar's office.

History.

At the time of the first Musalman conquest (1312), Rājāpūr was the chief town of the district.[1] In 1638, it is said to be one of the best Deccan maritime towns.[2] In that year Courten's Association and East India Company formed a compact in 1649 by which the former was to retain its assuda Factory in Madagaskar while the port-to-port trade in India, was to be reserved to the latter and because of pepper and cardamoms, and freedom from Dutch interference, the offer was accepted.[3] In 1660 and 1670, Shivāji invaded the town sacking the English factory. In 1673, it is mentioned as then a French and formerly an English factory.[4] In the terms of a treaty with Shivājī, the factory was again established but it was never profitable.[5] In 1686, after the unsuccessful expedition of Auraṅgzeb's son Muazzam, his brother Akbar, who had long been in rebellion against his father, hired a ship commanded by an Englishman, and embarking at Rājāpūr, sailed to Maskat, and from Maskat went to Persia.[6] In 1713, Rājāpūr was handed over to Āṅgre.[7] About this time (1710-1720), Hamilton states that formerly both the English and French had factories, and that the country produced the finest *batelas* and muslins in India. Now (1720), he adds, 'arts and sciences are discouraged and the port deserted'. He noticed its fine artificial water cisterns and natural hot bath within three yards of a cold one, both reckoned as medicinal.[8] In 1819, Rājāpūr was, in the extent of its trade and in the number and wealth of its people, much ahead of any other south Koṅkaṇ port. The river was not very good, large boats having at one-third of the way up to move their cargoes into small boats. But trade was encouraged by specially easy rates. The inland trade was through the Aṇaskurā Ghāṭ to all the chief towns of the Marāṭhā states. In 1834, Rājāpūr was a great mart for goods to and from the Karnātak and southern Marāṭhā country. The exports were cloth, clarified butter, and pepper; the imports were dates and other dried fruits, and iron.

---

[1] Jervis' Konkan, I. 81. As so many names along the Konkan coast are Grecized, it seems probable that Ptolemy's (150), Turannosboas is Rājāpūr

[2] Mandelslo in Harris, II. 130.

[3] Sir William Hunter. A History of British India. Vol. II. p. 115.

[4] Fryer's New Account, 59

[5] Grant Duff, 118.

[6] Nairne's in Ind. Ant. II. 320.

[7] Grant Duff, 186.

[8] Hamilton's New Account, I. 246.

Fort.

The only stronghold was a small fort, *gadhi*, on the right bank over the river. On slightly rising ground with a filled up ditch on the south side, the fort was a strong masonry building surrounded by a wall with two bastions which are now ruined. In 1818, it was taken possession of by the British. In 1862, the building was strong, but the wall, except one bastion, was somewhat broken. Water was plentiful and supplies could easily be obtained. There were four old and unserviceable guns.[1] The English factory, used as a Government office, seems to have been started in 1649 and closed in 1708.[2] During this time the factory suffered greatly from the disturbed state of the country. It was sacked by Shivājī in 1661, and as a punishment for furnishing the Bijāpūr king with war stores, the factors were imprisoned until a ransom was paid. The factory was closed at a loss of £ 3,718. In 1668, it was re-established, but after two years (1670), was again invaded by Shivājī and withdrawn.[3] It was for fourth time opened in 1702, but after about ten years was finally withdrawn.[4] Of the French factory, now in ruins, little is known. It was probably started about 1667,[5] and was sacked by Shivājī in 1670.[6] Whether it was again opened is not known. It was closed before 1710.[7]

Hot Spring.

The hot spring at the foot of the hill about a mile from the town, is for its virtue in curing rheumatic and skin diseases, much frequented by people. The water from the side of the hill, about 300 yards from the south bank of the river, flows into a ten feet square stone paved cistern, and thence through a short pipe ending in a stone cow's head, pours in a full stream into the river. With a temperature of about 120° the water has no special taste or smell.[8]

Ganga Spring.

About a mile from the hot spring, is a spring locally known as Gaṅgā whose water flows at uncertain times, never more than once in two years. The usual season of its flow is in the hot months, rarely or never during the rains. It suddenly begins, flows for two or three months, and dries up without warning. It is held in great reverence and called Gaṅgā. Immediately the flow begins, Hindus from long distances come and bathe, first in the hot spring and then

---

[1] Gov. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

[2] It was here that the able but unfortunate Sir John Child, afterwards (1682-1690), President of the Company, spent several of his first years in India. The factor at Rājāpur was his uncle, and according to Captain A. Hamilton, who never lets a chance of abusing him pass, Child drew the notice of the Company to some irregularities on his uncle's part, and in reward, at the early age of twenty-four, got himself appointed his uncle's successor. New Account, I. 245.

[3] Bruce's Annals, II. 399.

[4] Nairne's Konkan, 120; Hamilton's New Account, I. 246.

[5] On 15th October, 1665, the first French factory was established at Surat. Milburn's Oriental Commerce, I. 381.

[6] Bruce's Annals, II. 399.

[7] Hamilton's New Account, I. 246. Mr. Nairne (Ind. Ant. III. 319) mentions that the Dutch had at one time a factory at Rājāpūr.

[8] Trans. Bom. Geo. Soc. VII. 159 (1846).

CHAPTER 20. — Places.

RAJAPUR. Ganga Spring.

in the cold intermittent spring. A number of small ponds have been built for the use of the bathers. As in similar cases the spring is probably a natural siphon. In the middle of the town is a temple of Viṭhobā with a large rest-house, used by travellers and religious mendicants. Fairs in honour of the God are held twice a year in *Ashāḍh* (June-July) and *Kārtik* (October-November), when a considerable crowd of people assembles.

Mosques.

The large Musalman population have built seven mosques in different parts of the town. None are of any size of architectural beauty. The *Jumā* or chief mosque is near the Koḍavlī bridge.

RAMGAD FORT.

Rāmgaḍ Fort is in the village of Rāmgaḍ (Mālvaṇ T.; p. 870). Except a towered wall leading to a reservoir, there are no defences. The walls about 18′ high, ten feet thick, and more than 700 yards in circumference, have fifteen small towers most of them with three embrasures. The west gateway is an eight feet wide and fifteen feet long passage, lined with stone steps between the fort wall and a tower about 18′ high and 18′ in diameter. Inside the fort are the commandant's house, and an interesting ruined temple about thirty-six yards square.[1] In 1862, the walls were in a dilapidated state. There was no garrison and no water. There were 21 guns and 106 cannon balls all old and useless.[2] Rāmgaḍ surrendered to the British on the 6th of April 1818.

RANPAR.

Ranpār, a village, lies at the top of the snug and deep little cove of Pavas, about six miles south of Ratnāgirī.

RASALGAD FORT.

Rasāḷgaḍ Fort (Kheḍ T.; 17° 45′ N, 73° 30′ E.), at the south end of the spur which further north is crowned by the Sumārgaḍ and Mahipatgaḍ forts, has an area of about five acres. Less elevated than either of the above forts, Rasāḷgaḍ is approached by an easy ascent which begins on the west and is about three miles from the village of Mādavē (Kheḍ T.; p. 897). Narrow in the north, the fort gradually broadens, dividing in the south into two spurs, one running to the south-east, the other to the south-west. The fort is entered from the north by a very massive gate guarded by a tower and high battlements. In a crevice in the wall opposite the gate is an image of *Māruti*. About eighty yards inside is a second gateway, also strongly guarded by a tower and battlements. Further south, where the ground broadens, there is a temple with some rich wood carving. This temple, dedicated to the goddesses Zolāyā and Vāghyā, is of some local sanctity forming every year the gathering place for bands of worshippers from fourteen neighbouring villages. Both the spurs of the hill beyond the temple are fortified. On the south-east spur is a roofless building once used as a storehouse. Beyond the storehouse are some pools with near their banks several memorial stones with very dim weather-worn tracery.

---

[1] Mr. R. D. Worthington, C. S.

[2] Gov. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

RASALGAD FORT.

The spur after about 300 yards ends in a battlement known as the Pusāṭi's Tower. The south-west spur is much more strongly fortified. The defences known as the upper fort, *bale killā*, about 186 feet by 126, are surrounded by walls, with, at each corner, an embrasured battlement. Inside are the ruins of a powder magazine and of the commandant's house. The temple of Zolāyā and the image of Māruti show that the fort was built and for a time held by Hindus. The only trace of Musalmans is in the Upper Fort, a battlement known as the saint's tower, *pir buruj*. At present (1960), there are six guns on the fort.

The fort has an easy access but no inhabitants reside in it. However, people often use a big open ground inside the fort as a picnic spot. Pūjā of the Goddess Zolāyā is performed daily and a fair is held in her honour in *Navrātra*, Ashvin Sud., 1 to 10.

RATNAGIRI.

Ratnāgirī north latitude 17° and east longitude 73° 19', with, in 1951, 27,082 people, the administrative headquarters of the district, lies facing the sea, 136 miles south-east of Bombay. Ratnāgirī Bay, about two miles broad and one mile deep, has along its north shore a long flat fortified headland from 200 to 300 feet high, joined to the mainland by a narrow sandy neck. The south shore ending seawards in cliffs and boulders is rocky throughout. About half way between these two headlands a small river falls into the bay. On either side of the river mouth is a low shore fringed to the north with cocoanut trees, and to the south, sandy and flat, broken by occasional patches of palms.

Port Details.

During the north-east monsoon (October-June), the landing place is at the Custom House, about half a mile from a small round tower at the foot of the headland under the fort. In landing, a good lookout must be kept for rocks, as large reefs stretch west almost as high as low tide level, rising in isolated patches. During fair weather westerly gales, which sometimes last for three days, a heavy swell rolls in and landing is difficult, and in the south-west monsoon (June-October) it is generally impossible. Except at high water,[1] when if the sea does not break on the bay, it is passable for large country craft, but the river entrance is not safe. At the south end of the bay, about half a mile from the shore, a reef rises above water, falling away in a rocky bank from two to three fathoms that stretches west, its outer edge five fathoms deep, bearing south from the light-house.

Municipality.

Ratnāgirī Municipality was established in 1876. It has an area of four square miles. It is now governed under the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, XVIII of 1926, and is composed of 25 members. There are three seats reserved for women and one seat is reserved

---

[1] It is high water at full and change of the moon at 10 hours 52 minutes, ordinary mean springs rise six feet, and neaps four and a half, *Bom. Gov. Gazette*, 3rd July 1879, 699.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. RATNAGIRI. Municipality.

for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes. The municipality has, besides the standing committee, committees for sanitation, rules and bye-laws, and the gymnasium.

During the year 1956-57, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 3,73,573, composed of octroi Rs. 2,08, 750; consolidated tax Rs. 78,901; other municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 30,261; revenue derived from municipal property Rs. 22,697; grants and contributions Rs. 29,144; and miscellaneous Rs. 3,820. The total expenditure during the same year, excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 2,53,191, general administration being Rs. 47,029, public safety Rs. 36,364, public health and convenience Rs. 1,38,484, public instruction Rs. 23,799, contributions Rs. 150, and miscellaneous Rs. 7,365.

The municipality supplies tap water from the Municipal Nāchaṇē Water Works to a part of the town. The Nāchaṇē Water Works situated at a distance of two and a half miles from the town was built in 1910 at a cost of Rs. 85,555. It impounds water from perennial springs starting from a valley which is surrounded by boulder walls. Water is brought to the town by gravitation and stored in a service reservoir composed of two big compartments with a capacity of four lakhs of gallons. The rest of the town gets water from private wells which number more than 2,000.

The municipality has already taken in hand another water works scheme, known as the Pānvaḷ Nālā Water Works, for augmenting the water supply of the town. The source of supply is the river Kājavi running near the village Pānvaḷ which is situated at a distance of seven miles from the town. The water is to be brought to the town by a gravitation main. The estimated cost of the scheme is Rs. 24,68,000. The work is being executed through Government agency, and the work of laying pipes is nearing completion (September, 1957).

The town has an open drain called "*Toraṇ Parvā*" which passes through the town. This was constructed in 1914. There are pucca stone gutters for waste water.

There is compulsory primary education in the town managed by the District School Board, the municipality paying its statutory annual contribution. The municipality pays annual grants of Rs. 250 each to the private institutions which conduct four high schools, *viz.*, the Phatak High School, the Patwardhan High School, the Mahilā Vidyālaya and R. B. Shirke High School. The municipality also pays a token grant-in-aid to the R. P. Gogate College which is managed by the Ratnāgiri Education Society.

For fire service, the municipality has a fire-fighter-*cum*-water-sprinkler. The fire-fighter always kept ready for service, is used in times of scarcity to supply water to the people.

The municipality has about 35 miles of road, two and a half miles being asphalted, ten miles metalled, 18 miles water-bound macadam, and the rest unmetalled.

There are three municipal markets, one each for vegetables, fish and mutton. There is also a municipal slaughter-house.

An Ayurvedic dispensary, situated near the Svâtantrya Lakshmī Chowk, is run by the municipality. There is a Government Civil Hospital near the municipal office compound. At a distance of two miles from the municipal office there is Shri D. M. Petit Leprosy Hospital. Opposite the Jail Building there is the Mental hospital. Government manages a veterinary dispensary which is situated to the north of the city.

There are no municipal cremation or burial grounds. A private committee looks after a cremation ground for Hindus called the "Hindu Smashān Bhūmi" situated to the west of the town on the shores of the White Sea. There are eight burial places for Muslims in different localities managed by the *Jamāts* of the localities concerned.

Objects.
Fort.

The Ratnâgirī fort is a series of fortifications on the high headland which forms the west end of the north arm of the Ratnāgirī harbour. This headland has a shape similar to a horse's foot with the toe pointing south, the sides each about 1,320 yards long and the heel or broad north end about 1,000 yards across and has a total area of about 120 acres. From its north-east end, where it is joined to the mainland by a low isthmus about 440 yards broad, the headland rises from about 200 ft. in the north to 300 in the south. From the extreme south point where there is a light-house passing north along what may be called the west half of the foot, the heel. with very steep western cliffs, quickly falls to about 100 feet above sea level and then at north-west end of the heel, rises again as suddenly into an isolated fortified hill, 200 feet high, known as *Bāle Killā*. The broad north face of the headland, concave in shape, forms a bay with the citadel as its western, and the north end of the eastern face of the headland as its eastern arms.

The defences of the headland form an outer and inner fort. Starting from the isthmus in the north-east, about the middle of the south-eastern side, facing Ratnāgirī town, stood the main gateway of the outer fort, with the usual massive iron boxes and spikes to ward off elephants. South of this gateway to the light-house point, the eastern ridge is crested by a very high and massive wall. Between the light-house point, and the citadel previously referred to as *Bāle Killā* the west side, falling in sheer, some times overhanging cliffs, is fortified only at the extreme south and north ends. Passing north from the south or light-house end is a long stretch of cliff said to have been once topped by a wall, but of this no trace remains. At the extreme north-west are the isolated and very strong

CHAPTER 20. — Places. RATNAGIRI. Objects. *Fort.*

fortifications of the inner fort or citadel, *Bāle Killā*. Along the bay of the north of the headland from the citadel fortifications, a very strong, wide and high wall runs along the shore with bastions at close intervals. Near the village at the head of the bay a massive gate-way shelters the landing place or bunder. These low north shore defences are, according to local story, the work of the Pratinidhī, Dhoṇḍū Bhāskar (1790). From the gateway along the eastern arm of the bay a wall runs up to the north end of the eastern or isthmus face, and there, strengthened by a specially large bastion, turns at right angles to the south along the crest of the eastern ridge.

The citadel, *Bāle Killā*, with an area of six and a half acres standing on the flat isolated north-west point, forms a separate fortification, tenable against an enemy holding the outer fort without artillery. At the north-east and south-west corners of the foot of the citadel rock, cave-like openings, stretching for some distance inwards, are believed to be in communication with the citadel. They are supposed to have been sallyports prepared for secret flight in case of the capture of the fort from the land side. The fortifications are said to be partly Musalman, partly Marāṭhā. According to local accounts the oldest are the shore works in the north face of the headland, where, between the foot of the citadel, *Bāle Killā,* and the north landing place, *killā bunder* a tower was built and the citadel hill slightly fortified. According to local story, these defences were begun under the Bahamani kings (1343-1500). But the evidence of the Bahamani's hold of Ratnāgirī is so slight that it seems more likely to have been the work of a Bijāpūr Officer (1500-1660). Shivāji, who is said to have gained possession of the fort about 1670, added or renewed the strong wall that crests the eastern ridge south to the light-house point, and built protecting towers on two commanding points, one to the south on the site of the old court house, *Adālat* and the other to the north on Miryā hill. The tower on the lighthouse point, known as the *Sidda buruj*, is said to take its name from a captain of the guard who was killed in a battle with Dhuḷap, the famous pirate chief of Vijaydurg. In the eighteenth century the citadel defences are said to have been improved by the Āngre (1710-1755), and completed by the Peshvās (1755-1818).

The temple of Bhagvatī was renovated about 1950. A new temple of Shiva named Bhāgeshvar was also constructed on the other side, inside the light-house hill. The road has also been constructed through the main gate—which was in a dilapidated condition and hence removed—to go to the fort.

The imposter of Sadāshivrao Bhāū, the Peshvā's general, who died on the battlefield of Pānipat, was imprisoned in Ratnagiri fort from where he fled at the connivance of the Killedār, Rāmchandra Nāik, to Poona and for a time created a good deal of trouble for the *Bārbhāī* administration.

On the south bastion of the outer fort, 300 feet above the sea, a small white masonry tower, 22 feet high, has a fixed red light of the sixth order, shining in clear weather from 8 to 10 miles.

Jetty.

Passenger steamers ply only in the fair season between Bombay and Veṅgurlē and call daily at the Ratnāgirī port. For want of sufficient depth, all the steamers have to anchor a mile off from the shore. Before the construction of the jetty, passengers had to wade through water, waist-deep, to a distance of 20 to 30 feet according to tide, and get into the lighters or country crafts and then to embark on the steamer. These inconveniences and discomforts to which passengers were put, have now been removed by the construction of the Ratnāgirī jetty in 1933-34, at a cost of about Rs. 80,000. The work was begun in May 1933 and was completed and opened to public use on February 12, 1934. The passengers can now embark and disembark at ease and also dry-shod.

The history of the construction of a jetty or pier at Ratnāgirī goes as far back as the year 1869. The scheme was first mooted by Lieutenant Tremlow and subsequently between 1869 and 1932, as many as ten proposals were put forward, but none of them was found acceptable, either due to unsuitability of the sites or the excessive cost involved. The last proposal was for a steamer pier after the question had been thoroughly investigated by the Committee, under the Chairmanship of Captain Morland. This Committee was appointed at the instance of Sir Leslie Wilson, the then Governor of Bombay, who visited Ratnāgirī in 1926 and evinced keen interest in the scheme. The cost of the project of a steamer pier was estimated at Rs. 18 lakhs and this was much too ambitious a scheme for the Wharfage Fund Committee, Bombay, to finance. Later Mr. A. H. Whyte, the then Superintending Engineer, Southern Circle, selected the present site, on which the jetty has been constructed. Sir Frederick Sykes visited Ratnāgirī in November 1932 and gave an impetus to the new proposal of constructing a boat jetty, the cost of which was estimated at Rs. 96,000. This modest scheme received Government's sanction in February 1933, the work having been financed by the Landing and Wharfage Fees Fund Committee, Bombay.

The total length of the jetty is 990 feet of which the first 470 feet are on the foreshore. The structure consists of reinforced concrete beams and slab, roadway 12 feet width clear, supported by R. C. C. piles driven with the help of country devices. The last 245 feet portion is founded on 4½ tons precast concrete blocks which were conveyed from the shore to the site through water by a country crane rigged up on a couple of country crafts and laid in position. The central portion is supported on massive concrete side walls founded on rock, with rubble filling in between and R. C. C. slab over them.

Thebaw Palace.

The Thebaw Palace building is situated in Nāchaṇē village boundary and on the approach road which branches off from the Ratnāgirī-Kolhāpūr Road, in mile No. 0/8 (length one mile nearly).

CHAPTER 20. — Places. RATNAGIRI. Objects. Thebaw Palace.

The palace and its subsidiary buildings were constructed in 1910-11 at a cost of Rs. 1,31,486 and was utilised as Thebaw's* residence. It occupies an area of 27 acres and 18½ gunthas.

It is constructed of laterite stone in lime mortar. The roof of the main building is of Mangalore tiles. The main halls are provided with marble and minton tiled flooring. Other rooms have concrete floors. The main building is a two-storeyed structure provided with a lightning conductor. Water supply is provided by pumping water from a well specially sunk to the rear side of the palace compound as also from the Nāchaṇē main. It has got an extensive compound which is enclosed with stone walls. An excellent view of the country around can be had from the compound. At present the ground floor of the annex is used as an inspection bungalow. There is only one suite. The remaining portion is used by the Collector and the Additional Collector for their residence.

Adalat Building.

Adālat Building at Ratnāgiri (District Court) is situated on the plateau on the western side of the municipal road leading to Rājivḍē creek. It has been erected at a cost of Rs. 1,00,735 by using most of the materials, removed in 1825, from the Palace built at Guhāgar by Bājirāo II in 1812. It is a two-storeyed structure, the ground floor being used as office and the first floor as the residence of the District Judge. The roof of the main building is partly of double tiles and partly of single tiles, and some part is terraced. The roof of the coach-house and servant's quarters and stable is of single tiles while that of the record room is of mangalore tiles on plank ceiling. The ground floor is partly of trap stone paving and partly of lime. The first floor is of planks. The floor of the subsidiary buildings except the record room is of *murum*. The floor of the record room is of zinc sheets over a bed of concrete.

Civil Hospital.

Civil Hospital at Ratnāgiri is situated to the south of the road leading to Nivkhol Village. The date of erection of the main building is not known. It consists of the male ward accommodating 21 beds, ten surgical, eight medical and three for infectious diseases, the female ward accommodating 11 beds ; four for females, four for children and three for patients affected by infectious diseases, the maternity ward accommodating six beds ; and the T. B. ward accommodating six males and six females. There is also a store room, an office room and an operation theatre.

The outdoor patients department and the infectious diseases ward were completed in 1918-19 and quarters for two sub-assistant surgeons were completed in 1921-22. The capital cost of all the structures amounted to Rs. 43,176.

---

* King Thebaw of Burma was deposed on December 1, 1885, and was brought to Ratnāgiri in 1886. Up to 1901-11, he was kept at Outram Bungalow at Ratnāgiri. In 1901-11, after the construction of this palace, he was kept there. He died on December 15, 1916, at the age of 58. Therefore, this bungalow came to be known after him as 'Thebaw Palace'.

The indoor patients ward is of laterite stone and lime masonry with a mangalore tiled roof. The floor is partly of trap stone and partly of Shahābād stone. The whole compound is enclosed with a perforated compound wall.

Collector's Office.

The Collector's office is situated on the plateau on the west side of the Ratnāgirī-Kolhāpūr Road in mile No. 1. It is a two-storeyed structure. It has been erected by using most of the materials removed in 1823 from the palace built at Guhāgar by Bājirāo II in 1812. It is constructed at a cost of Rs. 84,000. The year of construction is not known.

The roof of the main building is of Mangalore tiles on plank ceiling, that of subsidiary buildings is of single tiles and that of the guard room is of double tiles. The ground floor is of concrete and the first floor is of planks.

Mamlatdar's Office.

This building is situated in the compound of the Collector's office. It is an old building and its date of construction is not known. It has a roof of Mangalore tiles on planking. The floor is partly of Shahābād stone, partly of cement and partly of *murum.*

Grain godowns.

There are in all six godowns constructed in the Collector's office compound. They are constructed in laterite stone masonry in cement mortar, with cement pointing from outside only. All these godowns have cement concrete floors. Two godowns have corrugated iron sheet roofs and the remaining four have a roof of asbestos cement trafford sheets supported on steel trusses. Of these six godowns, one has now been given to the branch of the State Bank of India, at Ratnāgirī

Rest House for ex-Servicemen.

It was observed that the Ex-servicemen found it difficult to secure accommodation for their stay, rest, etc. whenever they attended the district headquarters for receiving their pensions and some other occasions. To get rid of these difficulties, the Soldiers' Board decided to construct a rest house at Ratnāgirī. Accordingly the construction of the rest-house at Ratnāgirī was started in 1952-53 and was completed in the year 1953-54. It was constructed at a cost of about Rs. 30,000. It is located in the compound of the Collector's office. It is constructed of laterite stone masonry in cement mortar with cement pointing to outer sides. It has a Mangalore tiled roof.

D. L. B. Office Building.

It is situated in Collector's office compound. It was constructed in 1933 at a cost of Rs. 20,544. It is a two-storeyed structure. It occupies an area of 3,576 square feet. It is 'L' type building. It is constructed of Laterite stone masonry in cement mortar. On the ground floor there are nine rooms. Three rooms in one wing are of 18′ × 14′ and one room is of 18′ × 16′. In the other wing there are two rooms of 18′ × 16′ and one hall of 18′ × 24′. There are also two small rooms of 10′ × 6½′ and there is a motor garage of 24′ × 14′.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. RATNAGIRI. Objects. *D. L. B. Office Building.*

All these rooms have Shahābād stone floors and concrete roofs with rolled steel joints. The ground floor portion is occupied by the District School Board, Ratnāgirī.

On the first floor there are as many rooms as on the ground floor. It has a Shahābād stone floor and a Mangalore tiled roof. It is occupied by the District Local Board, Ratnāgirī.

Lokamanya Tilak Memorial.

Lokamānya Ṭiḷak was born at Ratnāgirī on July 23, 1856 in a house where Ṭiḷak's father stayed as a tenant. After Ṭiḷak's death in 1920, the people of Ratnāgirī decided to acquire the house in memory of the national leader and a committe was constituted to devise a scheme for raising a suitable memorial to him and collect funds for the purpose. All difficulties raised by the owner of the house, an old widow, were overcome. A bust of the Lokamānya was installed in 1944. In 1956, when the birth centenary of the Lokamānya was celebrated on a nation-wide scale by the Government and the people of the country, the Government of India decided to acquire this birth-place of the Lokamānya with all adjoining land for Rs. 30,000. This was effected in 1958. The estate is now in possession of the Government of Mahārāshṭra and is in the charge of Buildings and Communications Department for upkeep. Several proposals regarding how Ṭiḷak's memory should be preserved in his birth place are under consideration (1959).

Vitthal Temple.

This is situated in Bazar Peṭh at a distance of about two furlongs from the S. T. stand. It is an old temple constructed by an employee of the Peshvās. It is a laterite stone structure. The renovation of the idol was made on Māgha Vadya 5, Shake 1817 and that of *Sabhā manḍap* in Shake 1820.

In addition to the main idols of Viṭṭhal and Rakhumāī, there are idols of Sūrya, Ganapati, Shankar, Devī, Datta, Māruti, Garuḍ, Nāmdeo and Tukārām.

The following are the fairs held every year :—

(1) Rathotsava ..	..	Kārtik Suddha 11.
(2) Gokul Ashṭamī	..	Shrāvaṇ Vadya 8.
(3) Kākaḍ Āratī	..	Ashvina full-moon day to Kārtika full-moon day.

This temple has no specific income but it gets Rs. 18 per year from Government. The expenditure incurred on fairs and festivals and maintenance of the temple is met from public contributions.

It is used as a town hall for public meetings and public functions.

Rama Temple

This is situated in Bazar Peṭh at a distance of about three furlongs from the S. T. stand. It is a laterite stone construction with a floor of tiles. There is *Sabhāmanḍap* (congregation hall) of 40'×20'. There are two *dharmashāḷās* and residential accommodation for the priest.

Rama Temple.

It gets an income of Rs. 1,500 a year while the annual expenditure comes to about Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 2,200. The deficit is met by public donations and contributions.

The following are the fairs held every year :—

(1) Rāmanavami .. Chaitra Shuddha 1 to 9.

(2) Kākaḍ Ārati .. Ashwin full-moon day to Kārtik full-moon day.

Patit pawana Mandir.

It was constructed in 1930 at a cost of Rs. 1½ lakhs along with the chawls which were built so as to secure some annual income for the temple. There are idols of Lakshmī and Nārāyaṇ installed in the temple.

This temple is open to all Hindus including Harijans. The name Patitapāvana has thus a significance, all its own. At present the temple gets an annual income of Rs. 900. But the expenses exceed this income and the deficit is met by public contributions.

Mental Hospital.

The hospital consists of several detached one-storeyed blocks such as a male ward, a female ward, a criminal ward, solitary cells, etc. The office building is a two-storeyed structure. All the buildings are of laterite stone in lime masonry. It has a roof of mangalore tiles, and floors of Shahābād paving. These blocks are enclosed by a high compound wall which is provided with iron-barred gates. Outside the compound there are quarters for warders, clerks, etc.

The average attendance of patients is 320.

The staff consists of a superintendent, a psychiatric social worker, two medical officers, etc.

Training College for Men.

It is situated on the east side of the Ratnāgirī-Kolhāpūr road in mile No. 1. It was constructed in 1863 and was enlarged in 1870. It was constructed at a cost of Rs. 17,975. It is of an old pattern and has a low roof of single tiles with ridge ventilators and floor of Shahābād stones. Up to 1939 this building was used for the Government High School at Ratnāgirī. At present (1959) there are 105 students in the Second Year and 121 in the First Year. The staff consists of a principal, 12 full-time teachers, two part-time teachers, three special teachers, three clerks and 10 Class IV servants. There is a hostel for the students of the Training College which is situated on the plateau near the Faṇshi springs. It was constructed in 1905-06 at a cost of Rs. 54,548. It provides accommodation for all students. It is provided with a dining hall and a kitchen It has a roof of partly double and partly single tiles and a floor of Shahābād stones. Quarters are provided to the Principal, Training College.

Social Club.

The Social Club was established about 50 years ago. The membership of the club at present is 60 (1959). The club provides facilities for playing tennis, badminton, table-tennis, chess and carrom. It has

CHAPTER 19. Places. RATNAGIRI. Objects. Social Club.

got a permanent hard tennis court. The club conducts local tournaments in badminton, table-tennis and bridge.

The meetings of the club are held in the Victoria Memorial Hall situated near the municipality.

Rotary Club.

A local branch of the Rotary club was established on April 6, 1957, which has at present (February 1959) 25 members. The meetings of the club are held every Saturday in the Mahilā Vidyālaya Ratnāgirī.

Marine Biological Research Station at Ratnagiri.

There is a *Marine Biological Research Station* at Ratnāgirī, and situated there in are the main building, officers' quarters, servants' quarters, roads and a well. The main building includes library, tank room, store, laboratory, museum, dark room, office and record, curator's room, engine room and sanitary annexes. It is constructed at a cost of Rs. 1,55,832. The main building has a concrete floor and in officers' and servants' quarters the floors are of Shahābād stone-paving. It has a roof of Mangalore tiles.

At the centre of the main building there is a courtyard of 35′-9″ × 34′-9″. It occupies an area of 7,200 square feet.

It is proposed to have a small aquarium on the lines of the Taraporewala Aquarium in Bombay. It is also proposed to have an initial storage tank and filtration plant at an estimated cost of Rs. 55,569.

Municipal Office Building.

It is situated on Ratnāgirī-Kolhāpūr road between mile No. O/3 and O/4. The main building faces the west. It was constructed in 1906 and is a single storeyed structure. It is constructed in laterite stone in lime mortar and has a roof of Mangalore tiles and floor partly of Shahābād tiles and partly of cement.

The main hall is measuring 27′-9″×18′-9″ and there is one room adjacent to the hall measuring 18′-9″ × 7′-3″. In front of the hall there is a verandah of 22′ × 7′.

In 1924 one more block was constructed adjacent to the main hall consisting of one meeting hall of 36′-0″ × 18′-6″ and a room of 25′-3″ × 11′-0″ with a verandah on the south of the meeting hall which measures 36′ × 7′. It is constructed in laterite stone in cement mortar. It has a floor of Shahābād stones and a roof of Mangalore tiles. In 1948, two rooms were added – one to the rear side of the main building and the other by the side of the verandah. The room on the rear side of the main hall measures 38′-0″ × 12′-6″ and the other one measures 14′-3″ × 10′-0″.

There is an open space all around the building.

Municipal Traveller's Bungalow.

This is situated to the west of Ratnāgirī-Kolhāpūr road, at the back of the Municipal office. It is a single-storeyed structure constructed in laterite stone in cement mortar. It has a cement floor and a roof of

Mangalore tiles. The walls are plastered on both sides. There are two halls where nine travellers can be accommodated.

CHAPTER [illegible].

Places.

RATNAGIRI.

Objects.

Executive Engineer's Office.

This is situated in mile No. O/4 on the west side of the Ratnāgirī-Kolhāpūr road. A land measuring one acre and six gunthas accommodates 10 ground floor structures with a wide and long open plot in front facing the main road.

The main office building, with an enclosed compound and out-houses was constructed in 1886-87. Subsequently ancillary structures like sanitary blocks, record room, project overseer's office building were constructed as need for them arose. It was provided with electricity, telephone and tap water.

The main building has laterite stone walls in mud with lime plastering. It has a roof of Mangalore tiles and a cement concrete floor.

Special Prison.

This is situated in mile No. O/1 on the east of the Ratnāgirī-Kolhāpūr road. It was constructed in 1927 at a cost of Rs. 1,60.791. The wards for the prisoners which are vaulted and iron-barred in front, are in a circle in the centre of the Jail. Outside this circle there are female, quarantine and untried prisoners' wards and four work-sheds. It has three subsidiary buildings, *viz.*, (1) Jailor's Quarters (2) Clerk's Quarters, and (3) Warder's Quarters.

White Beach.

One of the beautiful decorations in Ratnāgirī is the White Beach, studded with cocoanut palms on its border and extending over five miles of sparkling sand from Ratnāgirī Jetty to Miryā Hill. With the blue-green sea in front and the green palms behind, the scenery there is fascinating at any hour of the day which makes it a favourite spot of holiday-makers.

History.

Under the Bijāpūr dynasty, unlike most of the districts which were held or farmed by hereditary superintendents, deshmukhs, Ratnāgirī formed a state possession governed by State Officers. No notice of Ratnāgirī has been traced among the early European accounts of the coast. In 1731, on the partition between Kolhāpūr and Sātārā, Ratnāgirī was given to Shāhū, the Sātārā Chief.[1] In 1783, it was the headquarters of one of the Peshvā's districts In June 1818, it was quietly surrendered to the British, and in 1822, after weighing the advantages of it with Jayagaḍ and Vijaydurg, Ratnāgirī was chosen to be the British headquarters.[2] In 1819, it was a large village, but from the shallowness of the river had very little trade.

REDI FORT, OR YESHVANTGAD.

Reḍī[3] (Rājāpūr T.), more properly Yeshvantgaḍ, is a very fair specimen of the forts built about the time of the break-up of Musalman power (1660). According to Grand Duff it was

[1] Grant Duff, 223 ; Nairne's Konkan, 80.

[2] Nairne's Konkan, 129.

[3] Contributed by Mr. R. B. Worthington, late Bombay Civil Service.

CHAPTER 20. Places. Redi Fort or Yeshvantgad.

built by Shivāji about the same time (1662), as he built the great island fort of Sindhudurg at Mālvaṇ. But it is probable that Shivāji only repaired a fort previously held by the Sāvants for the Bijāpūr kings. In 1817, when it was in the hands of the Sāvant Chiefs, the fort was besieged by the Portuguese who planted their guns on Hasta Dongar Hill, and though too far off to do it much harm, the marks of the battering still remain on the south walls of the citadel palace. Failing to take the fort they are said to have cut down the neighbouring palm groves and decamped. In 1819, in accordance with an agreement made some years before (1812), with Phoṇḍ Sāvant, the English came to Reḍi to take the fort from Sambhāji Sāvant. Their batteries opened on February 13th, and in the evening of the same day the outworks were carried by assault, and next morning the fort surrendered.[1] The marks of the English cannon balls are still visible on the north end of the west side of the palace.

Built on the south side, the fort commands the mouth of the creek. The citadel stands on a hill, which, with a large piece of the surrounding plain, is enclosed by an irregular outer wall. A little above the fort the creek is joined by an estuary, the water of which protects the eastern end, and a short branch of it washes close along the foot of the southern fortification. At the south-east corner of the wall is some ruined masonry apparently guarding a sluice, by which probably the level of the water could be kept up at low tide. The land to the south-east was probably formerly under water at high tide and an impassable swamp at low tide, for the whole of the outer defences of that side of the fort seem to be much slighter than elsewhere, the wall ceasing to be fortified and becoming more like a dam than a fort wall. Along the south-west there are low fortifications and a small pass ending in a gate, from which a towered wall stretches to the sea. Thus the whole line of circumvallation, about 1½ miles, intercepts a long strip of smooth sandy beach about a quarter of a mile in length. Of the whole space enclosed by the walls, the eastern half is taken up by the hill and citadel, and the western half by a plain, now covered by a palm grove and a small cluster of houses. The outer wall is armed with round towers, the strongest of them about twenty feet high and joined by a loopholed curtain about 17 feet high. Through the gate of the outer wall, a paved road, passing up the central citadel hill, is crossed by a wall that runs from the citadel to the outer fortifications. Through a gate in this wall is a square court, and up a flight of steps and through a third gate is the citadel. From their outer foundations the walls of the citadel stand about twenty-five feet high, and close under them circling all except the south-east corner of the walls, is a dry ditch or trench twenty-four feet wide and about thirteen feet deep, cut in the solid rock, its side opposite the wall being a sheer perpendicular. Towards the north-west the side of the moat opposite the wall is lined with masonry. In the south-east corner, where there is no

[1] While the English ships were outside the mouth of the creek, the Savant's war vessels lay inside. This seems to show that the creek must since have silted a good deal, as at present no vessel of any size can enter. Mr. R. B. Worthington, C. S.

REDI FORT OR YESHVANTGAD

moat, the wall is built rather to protect the besieged from distant artillery than to carry guns. It is not easy to see over, and the ground outside is divided by walls leading from the citadel to the outer fortifications. The square court in front of the citadel entrance is on a much lower level than the citadel itself, the top of its walls being about seventeen feet lower than the top of the citadel. Its walls are ten feet thick and twenty feet high, and it has round towers at the corners twenty-five yards apart measuring from centre to centre of the towers. The whole court is enclosed within the moat. The walls of the citadel are about twelve feet thick at the top, with a semicircular tower at about every sixty yards, intended for great guns. The circumference of the citadel is about one-third of a mile. The plateau inside is almost perfectly level. The palace is a double square with oblong towers at opposite corners. Its timbers have been carried away, and the only interesting point about its architecture is the question whether it may possibly be Portuguese[1]. The fort walls are in good preservation, and the buildings are still habitable. The fort was occasionally used as a sanatorium for Belgāum troops in the past. Within the fort walls is a police station.

HASTA DONGAR CAVE.

On the **Hasta Dongar hill**, where, in 1817, the Portuguese planted their cannon, is a cave hollowed in the face of the rock. It is a square opening rather more than six feet deep, not six feet high, with a little terrace about ten yards long across its front. It commands a view of Akhali, a rocky island containing an image of the demon god Vetāḷ. On the side of the same hill, under a bold overhanging black rock, is a larger cave about six and a half feet high, nine feet deep, and increasing in breadth from twelve feet at the entrance to seventeen inside. The local story is that the caves are sacred and were cut a thousand years ago when Reḍī was called Pāṭaṇ or Pāṭṇā. Of the ruins of old Reḍī lying west and south of the outer wall of the fort, very little masonry is left. But the ground has been considerably dug as if for building stone. The ruins fill the angle formed by the continuation of the southern shore of the creek and the sea coast. Just at the point of this angle is a very singular island or promontory of solid rock, broken off from the mainland. It is a huge mass of stone so steep all round, as, except at one place, to be most difficult to climb. It is covered with shrubs and trees of which one is very large, and with its ample foliage surmounting the steep rock, forms a most conspicuous object for many miles. On the flat top of this rocky island is a curious stone almost buried in the earth. It is about seven feet long, and in shape like the image of a man lying face downwards, the spine being represented by a projecting ridge along the middle. It might be the pillar of a temple, but is more like the top of a sarcophagus. Tradition calls it an image of Vetāḷ, king of the ghosts or goblins. It is held in much local respect, and in Mr. Worthington's opinion, who visited it in 1878, well deserves careful examination.

---

[1] See Bom. Gov. Sel. X. 157. It may be that the fort once belonged to the Portuguese and that the palace was a monastery.

CHAPTER 20.
Place.
ROCK TEMPLES.

Rock Temples. The Ratnāgirī rock temples are not of much importance, almost all of them are early Buddhist, cut probably between B. C. 200 and A. D. 50. The chief caves are at Chiplūn, Dābhol, Khed and Saṅgameshvar. At Vāde-Padel and at Sāgvē both near Vāghotan, are some ruined cells probabaly Brahmanic.[1]

SAITAVADE.

Saitavade (Ratnāgirī T.; p. 3,067), 36 miles to the west of Ratnāgirī is a hilly village providing little scope for agriculture. The village lies on the Jayagad creek and can be approached by motor launches running through the creek. An all weather motorable road running from Ratnāgirī to Jayagad passes through Saitavadē.

There are six temples, five mosques and a high school in the village.

SANGAMESHVAR.

Saṅgameshvar (Saṅgameshvar T.; 17° 10′ N, 73° 30′ E; p. 3,494) is a town on the Shāstrī river about 20 miles from the coast. It has some trade in grain, piecegoods and salt fish. The river which was till 1850 navigable for the largest vessels to the very Saṅgameshvar quay, is now impassable for six miles lower down.

Saṅgameshvar's decline is chiefly due to the silting of the creek. The pack traffic through the Mālā pass is, of imports, piecegoods and other articles. The trade is entirely in the hands of local merchants. On a much smaller scale, the system is the same as in Chiplūn. Light booths are raised during the fair season, and a trading camp is formed, to be broken up at the first burst of the monsoon. The market on the hill side above the narrow river bank suffered almost every year from fire. Early in 1878 fifty-five houses were burnt, and a few weeks later (March 16th) a disastrous conflagration completely destroyed the mamlatdar's office, the treasury, the police lines and outbuildings, the post office, and seventy-five private houses. Up to the date of the 1878 fire, Saṅgameshvar was the head quarters of the sub-division, and had, in addition to the ordinary revenue and police offices, a subordinate Judge's court and a post office. On the destruction of the public offices, the head-quarters of the sub-division were moved to the more central and convenient village of Devrukh.

Saṅgameshvar, the meeting of the Alaknandā and Varuṇā, is a place of some sanctity and of high antiquity. According to the *Sahyādri Khanḍ*, it was originally called Rāmakshetra and had temples built by Parashurām or Bhārgavarām. In later times, perhaps, about the seventh century, a Chālukya king Karṇa, coming from Karvīr or Kolhāpūr, made Saṅgameshvar his headquarters, and founding a city,

---

[1] Jour, B. B. Roy, As. Soc. V. 611. Mr. Burgess considers the Koṅkaṇ caves the second in age of all the West India groups; the oldest are at Junāgad in Kathiawar.

built a fortress, temples and palaces.* Of the temples, one, called Karṇeshvar after its founder, remains. Saṅgameshvar continued for some time as the headquarters of Chālukya chief. It is mentioned in a Chālukya grant, probably of the eleventh or twelfth Century.[1] In the twelfth century it was for long the residence of Basav, the founder of the Liṅgāyat sect.[2] In the sixteenth century it was the headquarters of a Bijāpūr governor. Barbosa (1514) speaks of it as Singuicar, a town of much commerce and merchandise with many ships from diverse ports.[3] It was also, though this was probably at Jayagaḍ at the river mouth, a great stronghold of pirates.[4] In 1540, the Bijāpūr governor, scheming to make himself independent, asked for, but was refused Portuguese help.[5] In the seventeenth century (1670), it is spoken of as Zanguigara four leagues from Dābhoḷ.[6] Here, in 1689, Sambhāji, the son of Shivāji, was made a prisoner by Aurangzeb. Hamilton (1700-1720) calls it an excellent harbour, but adds that the country was frequented by Rabāris and was not inhabited.[7] In 1819, numbers of Vañjāris in the dry season gave Saṅgameshvar the look of a place of some importance. But it was in no way a town and had only a very small fixed population.[8]

Two miles up the river, in old Saṅgameshvar, called the *Kasbā*, to distinguish it from the new town, *peṭh*, are several interesting temples. The chief of them is the temple of Karṇeshvar already referred to whose shrine is said to date from as far back as Parashurām.[9] At present (1960) the wall on the eastern side is in ruins while other walls are intact. The worshipping *gurav* gets a cash allowance of Rs. 18 per month for his services in Karṇeshvar and other Saṅgameshvar temples. Karṇa the Chalukya (634) is said to have built or repaired 360 temples and granted the revenues of many villages for their support. Every year on *Māgh Vadya* 15th

---

* The date of this Karṇa, who seems to be the same as the founder of the Mahālakshmi temple at Kolhāpūr (Jour. B. B. Roy. As. Soc. XI. 100), has not yet been fixed. The style of building is supposed (Jour. B. B. Roy. As. Soc. XI. 107) to point to some time about the eighth century A. D. At the same time, according to some verses in the Kolhāpūr Mahālakshmi temple, Karṇa flourished about A.D. 100 (30 Shālivāhan) (Jour. B. B. Roy. As. Soc. XI. 104), and according to the Saṅgameshvar Mahātmya he became king in 178 (S. 100). Jour. B. B. Roy. As. Soc. XI. 99.

[1] Jour. B. B. Roy. As. Soc. II. 263.

[2] Wilson's Meckenzie Collection, II. 4, 10.

[3] Stanley's Barbosa. The Portuguese writers notice its exports of pepper and iron. DeCoutto, XII. 30.

[4] Dom Joao de Castro (1538), apparently from the pirates infesting its mouth, calls Saṅgameshwar, the road of the Malbārs. Primeiro Roteiro da Costa da India, 39.

[5] DeCoutto, IV. 352.

[6] Ogilby's Atlas, V. 248.

[7] New Account, I. 244.

[8] Collector to Gov. 15th July 1819; Revenue Diaries 142 of 1819, 2577. Some details of the present state of the Saṅgameshvar river are given under Jayagad '.

[9] Jour. B. B. Roy. As. Soc. XX. 100. According to Lieut. Dowell (1829) Karṇa repaired temples originally built by Parashurām. Mr. Dowell noticed that the chief temple was of the same age and style as the Kolhāpūr temple. There were then (1829) the remains of over a hundred ruined shrines. Bom. Rev. Rec. 225 of 1851, 273.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. SANGAMESHVAR.

(February-March) a fair is held attended by about 1,000 persons. At the meeting of the rivers are several sacred places, *tirthas*, among them one is known as the cleanser of sins, *dhuta pāpa*.

There are two high schools in the town. The Bombay-Konkan-Goa State Highway passes through Sangameshvar. There are two big bridges built on the rivers Shāstrī and Sonvī on this highway.

In 1953 and in 1958, Sangameshvar suffered heavily from floods to the Shāstrī River.

SARAMBAL.

Sarambaḷ (Kuḍāḷ Peta; 16° 00′ N, 73° 35′ E; p. 2,331), is a village on the Kārli about four miles north-west of Kuḍāḷ. It has a large lake covering an area of about seventy-two acres, whose water is used chiefly for field irrigation.

SATAVALI.

Sātavali (Lāñjē Peta; 16° 454′ N, 73° 25′ E; p. 1395), is a village about 12 miles up the Muchkuṇḍi creek, surrounded though not shut in by high hills. Being the nearest point to the famous fort of Vishāḷgaḍ, the place has a small trade. It seems to be Dobetala to which Barbosa (1514), refers as having on its banks several small places, orchards, and betel gardens.[1] Its former great trade was hit by the silting of the creek. There are old paved roads and Musalman remains.[2] Close to the river is a small fort with six bastions and about a fifth of an acre in area. There is a village panchayat at Sātavali.

SAVANTVADI.

Sāvantvāḍī (16° 20′ N, 73° 45′ E; p. 12,451), 367 feet above the sea, about 19 miles west of Veṅgurlē and founded by Phoṇḍ Sāvant in 1670, the town, almost buried in palm groves, stretches round the border of a lake, over rocky uneven ground seamed by ravines and water-courses. Well-wooded hills rise on all sides, the highest, Vāḍī Peak on the west rising, 1,200 feet above the sea.

Trade.

Except on Tuesday, the market day, when many people come from the villages around, Vāḍī is a place of little trade. Sāvantvāḍī manufactures are almost all ornamental. They are lacquered toys, *khaskhas*, grass fans, mats, boxes and baskets, ornamented with beetle wings and gold embroidery, velvet and embroidered saddle-cloth, small tables and other ornaments of bison and buffalo horn, round and rectangular playing-cards, and pipe bowls of the inner shell of the cocoanut polished and inlaid with quicksilver. Bidi-making is also an important industry. There are four Bidi-making factories in the town.

Lake.

The lake, a beautiful sheet of water, hemmed in by well-wooded hills and girt with a belt of palm, jack, and mango trees, is known as the Pearl Lake, Motī Talāv. Covering about 31 acres, and with

[1] Stanley's Edition, 73, 74.

[2] Nairne's Konkan, 33

Lake.

a mean depth of six feet, it was, in 1874, at a cost of about Rs. 20,000, improved by replacing the old retaining dam by a cut-stone wall 204 yards long, secured by hydraulic cement, and with, at each end, iron gates worked by rack and pinion. On the north-west a long flight of steps leads to the water, and on the south-east and south-west are some rice fields watered from the lake. Besides for irrigation the water is used for bathing for cattle and for washing clothes. A bronze statue of Bāpusāheb Mahārāj (a ruler of the former Sāvantvāḍī State) is erected by the side of the lake.

Fort.

On the east shore of the lake, separated from it by a road way and sloping bank, stands a ruined stone and mud fort, surrounded on the north-east and south by a ditch dry in the fair season. Irregular in shape, 350 yards by 150, and consisting of roofed loop-holed towers and bastioned curtains, it has three entrances, the chief to the north, a gate of no great strength flanked by two towers. The fort contains two brass and some other guns, all unserviceable. On the banks of the lake, an arched gateway, known as the *Mus*, or Sluice Gate, between two large circular towers, leads to an inner fortress whose walls stand on the brink of deep natural ravines. The entrance towers have handsome castellated battlements and the west face is furnished with a clock. There is a clock-tower over the central entrance gate. Inside the fort are the palace and several other buildings. The outer wall of the fort exists only in parts.

Though not surrounded by a wall, Vāḍī is fenced on most sides by ditches, ravines, stone walls and bamboo thickets. Covering an area of about two miles the town is divided into seven wards or vāḍās.

Population.

Of the total population of 12,451 according to the Census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 1,424 and the non-agricultural classes 11,027. Of the latter, 2,381 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 2,116 persons from commerce, 619 persons from transport; and 5,911 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

The civic affairs of Sāvantvāḍī are managed by a municipality established in 1931, now governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. The municipal council sonsists of 20 members. Two seats are reserved for women. The municipality has, besides the managing committee, two other committees, one for sanitation and the other for roads.

In 1956-57, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 2,20,501. The income from municipal rates and taxes was Rs. 2,10,693, revenue under specific acts Rs. 424; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 5,500; grants and contributions Rs. 1,253 and miscellaneous Rs. 2,631. Expenditure for the same year, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 1,87,221;

CHAPTER 20. — Places. SAVANTVADI. Municipality.

general administration and collection charges being Rs. 1,16,647; public safety, Rs. 12,213; public health and convenience Rs. 40,612; public works Rs. 16,123; and miscellaneous Rs. 1,626.

Wells of which there were six public and 400 private in 1958, and a reservoir situated on the outskirts of the town form the source of water supply. The reservoir with a capacity of 3,00,000 gallons was constructed in 1893 and pipes are laid out to distribute the water.

The drainage system at present consists of *kuccha* open gutters with a total length of about 30 miles. There are no cesspools.

Compulsory primary education is imparted through schools managed by the District School Board, the municipality paying its statutory contribution. There are three high schools managed by private institutions, *viz.*, the Kalsulkar High School, Rāṇī Pārvatīdevī High School and St. Philomena English School. There is a private library in the town, the municipality making an annual grant.

There is no municipal hospital or dispensary. However, Government runs a cottage hospital and a veterinary hospital. There is also a privately managed maternity home, *viz.*, Rāṇī Jānkī Sutikā Griha.

There is a newly built theatre 'Chitra Mandir' and a telegraph office with a trunk telephone receiving centre in the town.

There are approximately 22 miles of roads maintained by the municipality, of which 4 miles and 5 furlongs are asphalted, 3 miles and 5 furlongs, metalled and about 14 miles, unmetalled.

The municipality maintains one Tracto-tanker. It is also used for road watering purposes.

The municipality manages a cremation ground for Hindus which is situated near the Vāḍī-Beḷgāum road. There are two burial places for Muslims and one for Christians, all managed by the respective communities.

There is one park named Balodyān which is maintained by the municipality.

SHIRGAON.

Shirgāon (Ratnāgirī T.; 17° 55′ N, 73° 15′ E; p. 3,063), situated four miles to the north of Ratnāgirī is bounded on two sides by creeks. The land is hilly and rocky The nearest railway station is Kolhāpūr, 85 miles to the south-east. A District Local Board road from Ratnāgirī to Sākhartar passes through the village. Agriculture is the main occupation of the village. There are four temples, two mosques, three Marāṭhī schools and two Urdu schools in the village. Besides, there is a farm where various experiments for the improve-

ment of agriculture are carried out. The village panchayat looks after the civic affairs of the village. Grants under community development programme are given to various institutions to enable them to carry out activities useful to the people.

SIDHGAD FORT.

Sidhgad Fort (Mālvan T.), is a hill about 16 miles north-east of Mālvaṇ. It has an area of about 2¼ acres. It fell to British troops in April-May 1818. At present nothing remains of the fort.

SONAVADE.

Sonavaḍē (Kuḍāḷ Peta, p. 1,658), lies 26 miles to the east of Kuḍāḷ. The nearest railway station is Belgāum, 80 miles to the south-east. There is an old fort in the village which, except its walls is in ruins. The remains of the fort speak of its past glory. Inside the fort walls there is a well and a temple.

SUMARGAD FORT

Sumārgad Fort (Kheḍ T.), on the same spur of hill as Mahipatgaḍ a good deal lower and about four miles to the south of it is about three-quarters of an acre in area.[1] Surrounded by walls from fifteen to twenty-two feet high,[2] and with four corner battlements, the fort has a difficult access.

The fort, built of black stone, is still in a good condition. There are 16 guns in the fort. Inside the fort wall is a tank on an elevated land. There are no inhabitants in the fort. Two miles away from the fort on the western side there is a place, *pāgā*, where horses were kept. The way from the fort to the *pāgā* is built with stone steps. There are two temples on the fort, one of the god Bahiri and the other of god Shiv. From the top of the fort can be viewed the river Vāghnadī and the villages Māṇḍvē, Vāḍī, Jaitāpūr, Devghar and Ainavali and the fort Rasāḷgaḍ.

TULAS.

Tuḷas (Vengurlē Peta), about thirteen miles west of Vāḍī on the Vengurlē road, has, on the last day of *Vaishākh* (May-June), a yearly fair in honour of Jaiti Parab, a village headman looked upon by the people as a saint. About 5,000 persons assemble.

UCHITGAD OR PRACHITGAD.

Uchitgaḍ or Prachitgaḍ (Saṅgameshvar T.), one of the Sahyādri forts, stands on rising ground at Shriṅgārpūr (p. 1008), between the Mālā and South Tivrā passes. It is between three and four acres in area and can be entered only by a ladder.[3] Water supply is abundant. Provisions can be got from a village some miles off. It fell to the British in 1818 (January).[4] The fort is also called Rāṅgṇā.[5] There are five guns in the fort. The outer wall of the fort is in good condition while the inner fort walls are in ruins. A small temple of Bhagavatī built by the villagers some 25 years back is in good condition.

---

[1] Gov. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

[2] Mr. A. T. Crawford's MS.

[3] Burgess Provincial Lists of Architectural and Archæological Remains, 34

[4] Nairne's Koṅkaṇ, 114.

[5] Clune's Itinerary, 146.

CHAPTER 20.
Places.
VAGHERI.

Vāgheri (Vengurlē Peta ; 16° 25′ N, 73° 35′ E), a hill about five miles east of Veṅgurlē, is a well known landmark for seamen. The height is about 1,200 feet, and the area at the top about forty acres. There are no signs of fortification.

VALAVAL.

Vālāval (Kuḍāḷ Peta, 16° 00′ N, 73° 35′ E ; p. 3,320) lies six miles west of Kuḍāḷ. The nearest railway station is Beḷgāum, 75 miles to the south-east. *Kupichā Doṅgar* is at a distance of a mile from the village. There is a big tank in the village named Lakshminārāyaṇ Tank. Water of the tank is used for cultivation in summer. Of the eight temples of the village the Lakshminārāyaṇ temple is the oldest and the most famous. Carvings on the temple pillars depict various incidents in Hindu mythology. The temple built in black stone is situated on a river bank. Every year a fair is held in the village on *Rāmanavami* day (Chaitra Sudha 9). The fair which lasts for 11 days is attended by about four to five thousand people.

There are four middle schools and one high school in the village. Besides, there is a general library which receives Rs. 55 as an annual grant from Government.

VELAS.

Veḷās (Mandangaḍ T. ; 17° 55′ N, 73° 00′ E ; RS. Khopivalī, 95 m. p. 3,064), about 11 miles to the east of Mandangaḍ is noted as the birth-place of Bāḷājī Janārdan, commonly called Nānā Phaḍṇīs, who was the chief power in the Marāṭhā State since the death of Mādhavrāv Peshvā I.

There is a statue of Nānā Phaḍṇīs in sitting posture measuring two and a half feet.

VELNESHVAR.

Veḷṇeshvar (Guhāgar T. ; p. 1,673), a village on the coast about six miles north of the Shāstri river mouth is known chiefly on account of a large yearly fair held on *Mahā Shivrātra* (March) in honour of God Shaṅkar. From ten to twelve hundred people attend, shops and booths are put up. The nearest railway station is Karāḍ, 96 miles to the south-east.

VENGURLE.

Veṅgurlē (Veṅgurlē Peta, 15° 50′ N, 73° 40′ E : p. 22,778), the head-quarters of Veṅgurlē peta, lies 200 feet above sea, about a mile east of the month of a swampy creek.[1] The camp lies about a mile inland. Hilly and dry with tall jack, cashewnut, cocoanut, and mango trees. the country is very picturesque. A chain of low hills runs north-east to within 500 yards of the town, and outside of the camp stretches about nine miles south-west as far as Reḍī.

Port.

Except on the south, Veṅgurlē bay is sheltered. When, which seldom happens, it blows fresh from the south, small coasting craft run before the wind eighteen miles north to Mālvaṇ.[2] Overlooking

[1] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 391.

[2] It is high water on full and change of the moon at eleven hours. Springs rise eight and neaps five feet. Taylor's Sailing Directory, 392.

the point and creek, 250 feet above sea level, is a white pyramid known as Veṅgurlē Beacon. Close to this, in the fair season when the port is open, two fixed lights twenty feet apart are shown 250 feet above the sea, and visible for nine miles. From May-end till the end of August, the port is closed.[1]

Trade.

Ever since the British conquest, Veṅgurlē has been a rising place. It owed its importance, in the first instance, to its nearness to the military cantonments of Beḷgāum and Dhārvār, with which it was formerly and is even to-day joined by a road crossing the Sahyādri at the Rām pass. The people were vigorous, enterprising and energetic, and took much after the Bombay traders in their liberal and comprehensive views. The opening of the splendid cart road over the Parpoli pass and the erection of a light house on the dangerous rock outside of the port, gave a great impetus to Veṅgurlē, which among Koṅkaṇ towns ranked next to, though far below, Bombay. Veṅgurlē port has lost its importance as a main exporting and importing centre since the advent of motor transport. Carts arriving from upghats with goods have nearly stopped as goods are transported by railway. Even in the fair season the port is at times most dangerous and in the south-west monsoon it is closed. The chief articles that passed through the town from Southern Mahārāshṭra to Bombay are cotton, gallnuts, coarse cloth, and in smaller quantities tobacco, turmeric, chillies, and spices. The local exports are cocoanuts, betelnuts, cashewnuts, oil of *Kokam* (Garcinia purpurea) plaited palm leaves, coir fibre, and salt. From Bombay came piecegoods, metals and miscellaneous foreign articles. As a rule no grain travels eastward. Except a few local firms of long standing, the trade is carried on between Bombay and Southern Mahārāshṭra merchants, who employ forwarding agents, *dalāls*, in Veṅgurlē to receive and push on consignments by sea or land. Advices are sent by telegrams, and the sole duty of the agents is to arrange for freight and shipment to Bombay, or for land carriage to the Deccan. Bulk is seldom broken, and the goods coming in as on end of the town, pass out at the other within a very few days or hours. Supplies for local use are brought by petty dealers.

Veṅgurlē is connected with Beḷgāum by two routes, one of seventy-five miles by the new provincial road over the Parpoli pass, and the other a few miles shorter by the old Rām pass. A branch road from the Parpoli line, at Akeri eleven miles from Veṅgurlē, connects Veṅgurlē with Mālvaṇ, and also with the main road to Ratnāgiri and the northern parts of the district. Veṅgurlē is connected with Kuḍāḷ and Veṅgurlē-Kuḍāḷ road joins the Bombay-Koṅkaṇ-Goa National Highway at Kuḍāḷ. There is a lighthouse near the port.

There are at present two cashewnut factories at Veṅgurlē and finished products are exported to foreign countries. At Reḍī a border village between India and Goa iron ore is found in plenty and it is

[1] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 392.

CHAPTER 20.
—
Places.
VENGURLE.

mined and exported to foreign countries, especially to Japan. It is a business centre and foreign steamers anchor in the port during the fair season. At Maṭh (a village from the former Sāvantvāḍī State) is a Cilica factory. Sodium Silicate is exported to other parts of the country.

Population.

Of the total population of 22,778 according to the Census figures of 1951, the agricultural classes number 6,222 and the non-agricultural classes 16,556. Of the latter, 5,806 persons derived their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation, 2,161 persons from commerce, 1,218 persons from transport and 7,369 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

Veṅgurlē is a municipal town. Veṅgurlē municipality, established in 1876, has an area of five square miles and is now governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. There is a managing committee and a dispensary committee, each with its respective functions.

For the year 1956-57, the income of the municipality excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,34,243; municipal rates and taxes being Rs. 96,245; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 15,737; grants and contributions, Rs. 21,564; and miscellaneous, Rs. 697. The expenditure for the same year, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 1,14,086; general administration and collection charges being Rs. 26,391; public safety, Rs. 18,066, public health and conveniences, Rs. 54,383; public instruction, Rs. 11,846: and miscellaneous, Rs. 3,400.

The chief source of water supply is wells. There are many private wells in the town. There are also three public wells and water from one of these wells is used for watering the streets. There is a municipal tank known as Nārāyaṇ Tank.

There is no drainage system in the town. A natural slope towards the south lets the rain water pass smoothly.

For fire service the municipality has maintained a fire-fighter.

There are three municipal markets one each for vegetable, fish and fodder in a building known as Crawford Market and owned by the municipality.

There are two roads in the town, Parpoli road and Rāmghāṭ road. Parpoli road is under the control of the Buildings and Communications Department; it is 3¾ miles in length out of which three miles are asphalted. There are 13 miles of metalled roads and two furlongs of un-metalled road.

There is compulsory primary education, managed by the District School Board; the municipality paying its annual contribution. There are three high schools, viz., R. K. Pāṭkar High School, Veṅgurlē

High School and Vidyā Mandir Kanyāshāḷā all in charge of private institutions. The municipality gives a contribution of Rs. 500 and Rs. 300 to the Vidyā Mandir Kanyāshāḷā and the R. K. Pāṭkar High School respectively. A public library called the Nagar Vachanālaya is given a contribution by the municipality. The Vachanālaya has a valuable collection of books. The municipality maintains a children's park around the library building.

A dispensary by the name 'Candy Dispensary' and a maternity ward are run by the municipality. The St. Luke's Hospital receives a grant-in-aid of Rs. 1,000 from the municipality. This Hospital is run by the American Missionaries and is equipped with all modern medical equipment. It may be said that it stands first in the district of its kind.

Cremation and burial grounds are managed by private institutions.

The town of Veṅgurlē has two bridges within its limits, the Mansi bridge and *Saṅkev Pool*. There is a building known as the Dutch factory now used as a Government office. There are two well-known temples, the Shri Devī Saterī temple, and the Rāmeshvar Mandir.

The market is a two-storeyed central building with a clock tower. The basement hall is divided into two stalls for the sale of fruit, vegetables. and miscellaneous stores, and the municipal offices are housed in the upper storey. Round the three sides of the main building are shops for general dealers in grain and groceries, while at the back and separated from the other buildings is the fish market. The market is conveniently placed in the busiest part of the town, on the side of the main road leading to the Parpolī pass.

At the landing stage, a stone quay and steps have at considerable expense been cut from the hill side. Below the headland and beacon at the north of the harbour are the customs office and a small dwelling built by the salt department. On the hill slope and just below the light house at the port is a traveller's bungalow facing the Arabian Sea. A mile or so inland, at the meeting of the roads to the Parpolī and Rām passes, and surrounded by houses is the traveller's bungalow maintained by the municipality. A mile ahead is the inspection bungalow in the camp area. Half a mile along the upper, or Parpolī road, where stand the main market and the Chief shops and warehouses, is the municipal market, a conspicuous building with a square clock tower and gable roof. Between the traveller's bungalow and the market and to the north of the road is the Post and Telegraph Office. On the lower or Rām Ghāṭ Road are the offices of the mamlatdar and the court of the subordinate judge located in the Dutch factory building. Nearly two hundred yards off is the Candy Dispensary.

History.

In 1638, under the name Fingerla, Veṅgurlē is mentioned as a very convenient haven, where the Dutch had a trade settlement and

CHAPTER 20. Places. VENGURLE. History.

victualled their ships during their eight months' blockade of Goa[1]. In 1660, under the name Mingerla, it is mentioned as a large town stretching half a league along the coast, with one of the best roads in India, where all the vessels that came from Batavia, Japan, Bengal and Ceylon, and those bound for Surat, Ormuz, Bassora and the Red Sea, both coming and going anchored, because both the water and rice were excellent. It was famous also for its best of spices, cardamoms, which not being had in other countries, were very scarce and dear; also for its great store of coarse calicuts spent in the country, and great quantities of coarse matting that served for packing goods[2]. About this time, Shivājī placed a garrison in the town and a few years later (1664), in punishment of a revolt burnt it to the ground[3]. In the next year (1675), it was burnt by the Moghals, the Dutch defending themselves[4]. In 1683, Aurangzeb's rebel son Akbar, meaning to leave India for Persia, took refuge in the Dutch factory[5], and in the next year Sultān Muāzzam, to punish it for its support of his brother, sacked the town with fury, the Dutch defending their factory from the windows till they brought off the attack[6]. In 1696, off Veṅgurlē, seven Dutch and five French ships had an indecisive fight. At this time it is described as once a place of trade, where the Dutch had a factory for cloth, both fine and coarse. In 1696, Khem Sāvant of Sāvantvāḍī[7] overran the country, and under pretence of visiting the Dutch chief, seized and plundered their factory. While held by Khem Sāvant, Veṅgurlē is said to have been attacked and plundered by Āṅgre[8]. In 1750, it was the head of 116 villages and yielded a yearly revenue of Rs. 20,916[9]. In 1766, the Sāvantvāḍī chief mortgaged its revenue for thirteen years to the Bombay Government to raise the sum of Rs. 2,00,000 wanted to free Reḍī, the English promising to establish a small factory with the British flag and a few sepoys to guard it[10]. This factory was, in 1772, mentioned as collecting a small revenue[11]. At the end of the thirteen years (1779), the Sāvants had failed to carry out some of the stipulations of the treaty and the English refused to give up Veṅgurlē, but

---

[1] Mandelslo in Harris, II. 360. Before 1641 the Dutch had a fortified factory. Stavorinus, III. 107, Baldæus (about 1660) says the Hollanders have a stately factory at Veṅgurlē a place very considerable, not only for its plenty of wheat, rice, and all sorts of provisions, but also for its situation near Goa. Churchill, III. 602.

[2] Tavernier in Harris, II. 360.

[3] Grant Duff, I. 200.

[4] Orme's Hist., Frag. 53 in 1670, it was said to be the chief storehouse of the Netherlands East India Company. Ogilby, V. 253.

[5] Orme's Hist. Frag. 125.

[6] Orme's Hist., Frag. 133; Baldaeus in Churchill, III. 152.

[7] Hamilton calls him Kempason.

[8] Hamilton's New Account, I. 248. Khem Sāvant is described as a soldier of fortune fighting for the chief who pays him best, with 7,000 or 8,000 men and two pirate grabs.

[9] Tieffenthaler, Res. Hist. et Georg. I. 506.

[10] Grant Duff, III. 100.

[11] Forbes' Oriental Memories, I. 293.

it was taken and plundered by the Sāvants.[1] In 1800, the British forced the chief to give up all British property.[2] In 1812, Veṅgurlē was finally ceded by the Rāṇī of Sāvantvāḍī.[3]

The fort or factory at Veṅgurlē stands behind the swamp. It is a strong building slightly fortified, entirely European, and in appearance, more Portuguese than Dutch.[4] In 1862, it was in good order, garrisoned by a detachment, and with five small guns. Water was abundant, and it was used by the military department as an arsenal and storehouse.[5]

Nine miles west-north-west of Veṅgurlē lie the Veṅgurlē rocks or Burnt Islands, a group of rocky islets stretching about three miles from north to south and one mile from east to west. The passage between the rocks and the mainland, about 2½ miles from the shore, though deep, is dangerous from sunken rocks. Of the islands the highest is about 180 feet. On the outermost of the three larger rocks is a light-house with a white fixed light 110 feet high seen for fifteen miles.[6] The three larger rocks are entirely metamorphic, and are composed of numerous varieties of quartzo-micaceous rocks mostly more or less ferruginous, and in many places a good deal decomposed and broken up. The rocks are quite bare, but the crevices everywhere and some few smooth places near their summits are filled and covered with quantities of a coarse tangled jointed grass. The largest of the three is pierced from side to side by a huge tunnel like cave, and about the middle of the island, owing to the falling in of the roof, a shaft has broken down into the cave. Even in the fair season the landing is difficult During the stormy months it is rarely practicable.[7]

Rocks.

These rocks are probably Ptolemy's (150), Heptanesia and the Sesikreienai of the Periplus (247).[8] In 1540, Dom Joao de Castro under the name of Ilheos Qaeimados, or Burnt Islands, describes them as many in number, but ten of them specially large, five at sea and five close to the land. They were called Burnt Islands because they were of bare rock without water or vegetation.[9] In 1788, they were held by the tribe of Málvaṇis[10].

Vetalgaḍ Fort.

Vetālgaḍ Fort on a hill in Pendūr village (Mālvaṇ T.; p. 6,621), has an area of about 22 acres. In 1862, the walls were

[1] Nairne's Koṅkan, 104.

[2] Low's Indian Navy, I, 204

[3] Hamilton's Des. of Hindustan, II 221.

[4] Taylor's Sailing Directory, 391.

[5] Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862

[6] The stone and cement used in building this light-house were taken from the Sindhudurg fort. Nairne's MS.

[7] Mr. A. O. Hume, Stray Feathers, IV. 418-420.

[8] McCrindle's Periplus, 129, 130; Vincent's Commerce of the Ancients, II. 433.

[9] Primeiro Roteiro da Costa da India, 17.

[10] Rennel's Memoir of a Map of Hindustan, 31

CHAPTER 20. — Places.

in bad order. Water and supplies were abundant.[1] At present (1960), the fort is in ruins.

VIJAYDURG.

Vijaydurg (Fort Victory) of Gheria (the enclosure), (Devgaḍ T.; 16° 32′ N, 73° 22′ E; p. 2506), is a minor port on the south shore of the entrance to the Vāghotaṇ river, 170 miles south of Bombay. The nearest Railway Station is Kolhāpūr, 108 miles to the south-east.

One of the best harbours on the western coast, and without any bar, it may be entered in all weathers, and even for large ships is a safe south-west monsoon shelter. In the fine season, vessels may anchor anywhere in the harbour, the best position being a mud and clay bottom with three and a half fathoms at low water. Between Vijaydurg fort and the fortified cliffs to the north-east, the channel is six cables wide, with, at low water, depths of from twenty to twenty-four feet. Inside, it rapidly shoals, and two and a half cables further the low water depth is not more than twelve or thirteen feet. The deep channel, only one and a half cables broad. lies close to the left bank of the western shore, and except at high water spring tides, there is no room for large vessels to swing[2]. There is a light-house near the port. The village, small and poorly built, with little tillage and no industry but fishing, is connected with Vāghoṭaṇ fifteen miles distant, and through the Phoṇḍā pass with the Deccan by a good but little used road.[3]

Trade.

The average turn-over of import and export at the port during 1953-58 was about 25,000 tons and about 25.000 passengers travel through the port every year. An old anchor (length 13½, breadth 8′ and road circumference 2′), belonging to the Marāṭhā Navy was found lying in water near the port for over hundred years and still

[1] Gov. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

[2] It is high water on full and change of the moon at eleven hours, mean springs rise nine feet and neaps five feet. Taylor's Sailing Directory, 390.

[3] By the early Europeans Vijaydurg, called Khārepāṭaṇ from the town of that name twenty-five miles from its mouth, was thought one of the best of the Konkaṇ ports. Dom Joao de Castro (Prim. Rot. da Costa da, India, 30) calls it (1538), the noblest and most favourite river in West India. The only big river without bar, or rocks, or other dangerous troubles. To enter wanted no skill, for whether you went by the middle or the side you always met with a kindly welcome and a good depth to anchor. About a century later (1660), Tavernier (Harris' Voyages, II. 360), calls it the best port in Bijāpūr with fourteen or fifteen fathoms of water near the land. Ogilby, 1670 (Atlas, V. 246) also mentions it as one of the best Konkaṇ ports. After it was Āngre's capital, A. Hamilton (1710) mentions it as Gheria or Vizendruk, fortified by a strong castle washed by the sea (New Account, I. 246) In 1756 Sir W. James, surveying before the English attack, speaks of a 'very large' town between the fort and a hill to the south. The town seems to have been nothing but a large collection of palm leaf huts. Low's Indian Navy I. 133. Its great natural advantages make it probable that the mouth of Vāghoṭaṇ river is one of the oldest coast settlements. There seems reason to suppose that it is Ptolemy's (150) Byzantium, a Greek corruption of Vijaynta. See Weber in Ind. Ant. II. 148. Rashid-ud-din's (1310) Karoba has been thought to be the Gheria. Yule in Ind. Ant. III. 209.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. VIJAYDURG.

in good condition. It was removed to the Maritime Museum, Bombay, from the port at the request of Captain J. R. Davis, Nautical Adviser to the Government of India on 5th February 1956.

Manufacture.

The local carpenters made much admired bison-horn ornaments of various kinds. But, the industry was very small and the craftsmen much indebted. No steps have been taken to encourage this industry and there is only one family at present doing this work as a subsidiary occupation.

Inside the fort is a large building formerly used as a store and now converted into an Inspection Bungalow by Government. It is used by Government officers while on tour. The old tank near the Inspection Bungalow is in a dilapidated condition. Police quarters are constructed just opposite the main-gate. Government have constructed a fish-curing yard at a cost of Rs. 15,000 in 1951 in front of the main-gate. Besides there is also a customs house, a small government bungalow and a *dharmashāḷā* within the fort area.

Fort.

Never a place of much trade or wealth, the whole interest of the village centres in its fort.[1] On the neck of rocky land that forms the south side of the bay, Vijaydurg, one of the best of Koṅkaṇ fortresses, though not very striking from the sea side, rises grandly about 100 feet above the river. The walls, of very great strength and protected by twenty-seven bastions, rise, at their highest point, into a great round tower. On the west breached in several places by the sea, they are over their whole length loosened and ruined by trees and creepers. Their triple line of fortifications encloses about twenty acres,[2] overrun with bushes, but with some good wells and several large habitable buildings.[3] The fort is probably old, enlarged under the Bijāpūr kings, and about the middle of the seventeenth century, much strengthened by Shivājī[4] to whom it owes its finest features, the triple line of walls, the numerous towers, and the massive interior buildings.[5] About forty years later (1698), Āṅgre made it the capital of a territory stretching for about 150 miles along the coast and from thirty to sixty miles inland. For more than fifty years, Āṅgres were a terror to all traders, and the English were forced to keep a special fleet to act against them. In April 1717, their ships of war, carrying a considerable body of troops, sailed against Gheria. An attempt to breach the wall failed, the storming

---

1 The special interest of Vijaydurg is that its old Musalmān buildings are less than in most forts, hidden under Marāthā additions. Nairne's Koṅkaṇ, 38. There is also a mosque and a tomb of a Musalmān saint, the first in the centre of the fortress very near the flagstaff. Nairne in Ind. Ant. III. 320.

2 Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

3 *Bombay Government Gazette*, 3rd July 1879, 699. In 1862, except a part of the first and third outer walls, the fort was in good repair. Water was abundant and supplies easily obtained. There were 278 old unserviceable guns Govt. List of Civil Forts, 1862.

4 Grant Duff, 85; Nairne's Koṅkaṇ. 63

5 Nairne's in Ind. Ant. III. 320.

CHAPTER 20.
—
Places.
VIJAYDURG.
Fort.

party was driven back with great loss, and the fleet forced to withdraw. Three years later a joint Portuguese and English fleet under Mr. Walter Brown destroyed sixteen Āngre's vessels, but made no impression on the fort.[1] In the same year (April 1720), the English ship, *Charlette*, was attacked, and after a gallant defence, her power having run down, she was caught and taken into Gheria.[2] In 1724, a Dutch fleet from Batavia attacked the place, but with no better success.[3] In 1736, Āngre's vessels took the richly laden English East Indiaman Derby, the armed ship *Restoration* of twenty guns, and several other vessels of less note. In 1738, in an action between Āngre's fleet and Commodore Bagwell, Āngre's fleet fled up the Rājāpūr creek and escaped with little loss.[4] Besides several captures from Dutch, Āngre about this time took the French forty-gun ship *Jupiter*, with 400 slaves. In 1749, Mr., afterwards Sir William James was attacked by Āngre's fleet, and after a hard fight, drove them to Gheria, pursuing them and causing great loss.[5] Next year, in spite of their defeat, they were bold enough to attack Commodore Lisle in command of a fleet of several vessels, among them the *Vigilant* of sixty-four and the *Ruby* of fifty guns.[6]. Again in February 1754, attacking three Dutch ships of fifty, thirty-six and eighteen-guns, they burnt the two large ones and took the third. Elated with this success, Āngre built several vessels, set two large ships on the stocks, and boasted he should soon be master of the Indian seas. For long the Peshvā and the Bombay Government planned Āngre's ruin. At last, in 1755, it was settled that in the next fair season the Peshvā's troops should attack him from land and the British by sea. At the close of the year (1755, Dec. 22), Commodore James was sent to survey Gheria fort then thought as strong as Gibraltar. He found that ships could get within point-blank shot; that on shore guns could be carried, and a diversion made from the tops of two hills; and that the fort was crowded with unprotected buildings. The place was surprisingly unlike what he had heard.[7] The Bombay Government were fortunate in having their harbour, a Royal squadron under Admiral Watson and a strong detachment of troops under Lieutenant-Colonel, afterwards Lord Clive. On the 7th April 1756, the fleet of twelve men-of-war, six of the Royal and six of the Company's navy, with 800 European and 600 native troops, and five bomb vessels with a company of artillery, and four Marāṭhā grabs and forty gallivats sailed from

[1] Low's Indian Navy, I. 100, Nairne's Konkan, 80.

[2] Low's Indian Navy, I. 100.

[3] Grant Duff, 231. There is said to have been another Dutch attack in 1735.

[4] Low's Indian Navy, I. 107: According to another account (Bom. Quar. Rev. IV. 75) some of the Commodore's broadsides reached the enemy, causing much damage and killing the admiral.

[5] Low's Indian Navy, I. 127.

[6] Milburn's Oriental Commerce, I. 296.

[7] I assure you, Sir, it is not to be called high, nor, in my opinion strong. It is indeed a large mass of buildings, and I believe the walls may be thick. But that part of the works which fell under any observation and which was three quarters of their circumference is quite irregular, with round towers and long curtains in the eastern manner, and which discovered only thirty-two embrasures below and fifteen above. Commodore James, 21st Dec., 1755; Ives' Voyages, 80).

CHAPTER 20.

Places.

VIJAYDURG.

Fort.

Bombay.[1] Sending a few vessels ahead to block the harbour, the fleet arrived off Gheria on the eleventh. The Marāṭhā land force, for some time afield, was camped against Gheria. Terrified by the strength of the British fleet, Tuḷājī Āṅgre leaving the fort in his brother's charge, surrendered to the Marāṭhā general. Hearing that the Marāṭhā general had extorted from Tuḷājī, an order for the delivery of the fortress, Admiral Watson on the next morning (12th) summoned the fort to surrender. Getting no answer, the fleet with the afternoon sea breeze, forming two divisions, sailed each in line of battle ship covering a bomb ketch, and protecting the column of smaller vessels from the enemy's fire. They passed the point into the river, and under a heavy fire, anchoring fifty yards off the north fortifications, battered them from 150 pieces of cannon. Āṅgre's ships were drawn up under the fort, all fastened together, and a shell setting one on fire, the whole were burnt.[2] Another shell set fire to the buildings in the fort, and the tremendous cannonade silenced the fort guns.[3] Still the commander held out. Learning that the fort was to be handed over to the Marāṭhās, Colonel Clive landed and held the ground between the Peshvā's army and the fort. Next morning the admiral again summoned the fort to surrender. The commandant asked for time to consult his brother. A respite was granted, till, in the afternoon, as no answer came, the bombardment was re-opened. By five O'clock the garrison surrendered, and Colonel Clive, marching in, took possession.[4] Though the masonry was destroyed, the rock defences were so perfect, that a determined garrison need not have yielded to any sea attack. Fifteen hundred prisoners were taken, eight Englishmen[5] and three Dutchmen were

[1] The details were; Royal squadron, one 70 guns, one 66 guns, one 60 guns, one 50 guns, one 20 guns, and one 16 guns; Company's squadron, one 44 guns, four 28 guns, and one 16 guns. Of the native troops 300 were Portuguese and 300 sepoys. Low's Indian Navy, I. 134. These details differ slightly from those given by Orme Hist. Frag. 408-417 in Nairne's Konkan, 92.

[2] One ship of 74 guns, eight grabs of from 20 to 30 guns, and sixty gallivats. Low's Indian Navy, I. 136. Of Āṅgre's ships. Dr. Ives (1755) writes: 'They are not unlike the *Tartans* of the Mediterranean, only a great deal lower: they carry two guns in the bow and vast number of men. Their music is a plain brass tube, shaped like a trumpet at both ends and about ten feet long, and a drum called a *tom tom*, a skin stretched on a large shallow brass pan on which they strike with two large sticks, and make an amazing noise. Among them are two ketches which they call *grabs*. ('Ives' Voyages, 43). Several of the gallivats had blue or green or white pendants like the Portuguese at their mast heads, and one had a white flag with a red cross in the middle. (Ditto, 80).

[3] According to another account the same fire which burnt the ships passed to a large vessel lying on the shore and from her to several smaller craft that were in the building yard. From there it was conveyed to the arsenal, storehouse, suburbs and city, and even to several parts of the fort, particularly to a square tower where it continued burning all the night with such violence that the stone walls appeared like red hot iron. Ive's Voyages, 87.

[4] According to Dr Ives (Voyages, 85) Colonel Clive making his approaches from land greatly annoyed the enemy. At a quarter after five he came to the Admiral's ship bringing an officer from the fort with the article of capitulation, which being agreed to by himself and the two Admirals, an English officer was sent in to take possession of the fort and to hoist English colours. Captains Forbes and Buchenan were, next, with sixty men, detained to see the garrison lay down their arms, and on the 14th at sunrise the Colonel and the whole army marched into the place

[5] Ives (Voyages, 88), gives the names of ten Englishmen.

CHAPTER 20. — Places. VIJAYDURG. Fort.

rescued; and plunder, amounting besides stores to Rs. 12,50,000, was divided among the captors.[1] The ruin of Āngre's navy was completed by the destruction of two sixty-gun ships on the stocks. Four of the Company's vessels and a detachment of 600 European and Indian troops were left to guard the harbour and fort.[2]

The Bombay Government were very anxious to keep Gheria, and offered to give Bāṇkoṭ in exchange. To this the Peshvā would not agree, and Gheria was handed over the following October.[3] The Peshvā made it the headquarters of a district and the seat of his Admiral Ānandrāo Dhuḷap. Under the Peshvā piracy flourished as vigorously as ever. In 1780, Ānandrāo attacked and captured an English ship carrying despatches to the Court of Directors, and imprisoned an officer in Rasāḷgaḍ near Mahābaḷeshvar. Again in April 1782, in spite of a gallant resistance, he captured the Ranger of a ship of the Bombay Marine.[4] In 1800, Lieutenant Hayes was sent to harass the pirates, but though he punished them severely, they were soon as troublesome as ever. In May 1818, Colonel Imlack, attempting to take Vijaydurg, was met by so heavy a fire, that his ships were forced to cut their cables and run. But the whole of the district had now passed to the British, and in June of the same year, the commandants, two brothers of the Dhuḷap family, surrendered. In the river was taken the Admiral's ship, 156 feet long, 33 beam and 430 tons burden[5].

[1] Milburn's Or. Com. I. 296. In Gheria were found 250 cannon six brass mortars, an immense quantity of stores and ammunition, £ 10,000 in silver rupees, and £ 30,000 in valuable effects (Ives' Voyages, 86). According to Dr. Ives (Voyages, 81-82), a council of sea and land officers, held before setting out on the expedition, had, to avoid disputes, settled that Admiral Watson as commander-in-chief of the Kings squadron should have two-thirds of one-eighth of the spoil, and Rear-Admiral Pocock one-third of one eighth, while Lieutenant-Colonel Clive and Major Chambers were to share equally with the captains of the King's ships. The captains of the Company's ships and captains of the army were to share equally with lieutenants of men-of-war and subaltern officers of the army, and lieutenants of the Company's ships with warrant officers of the navy Afterwards the officers of the army, not liking that their Commander-in-Chief should share with Captains of men-of-war, the Admiral to satisfy them gave his own security to make Colonel Clive's portion equal to that of Admiral Pocock, making good the deficiency out of any moneys he himself might be entitled to. In this way, after Gheria fell, a sum of about £ 1,000 was found due to Colonel Clive from Admiral Watson. This Admiral Watson sent with his compliments, but Colonel Clive was generous enough to refuse it, saying that he would not deprive the Admiral of the contents of his private purse, and that he had appeared to accept of the terms only for the good of the service.

[2] Tulājī Āngre remained, till his death a prisoner first in a fort, according to one account, near Rāygaḍ in Kolābā, according to another in Vandan near Sātārā (Grant Duff. I 66), and afterwards in Sholāpūr. Low's Indian Navy, I. 136. Grant Duff, I. 66.

[3] Low's Indian Navy, I. 136.

[4] Grant Duff, 457 in Nairne's Konkan, 105.

[5] Waddington's Report in Asiatic Journal, IX. 123. On their surrender the Dhuḷap family were, by the Bombay Government, given two villages near Vijaydurg. Here they are still settled, and though impoverished by mortgages, hold an honourable place among Marāṭhās, their daughters being fit matches for the highest families. Nairne's Konkan, 105.

CHAPTER 20

Places.

VIJAYDURG.

Fort.

Two miles from the fort, on the same side of the river, is an old dock, hollowed out of the rock by Angre, 355 feet long and 227 in the broadest part, and said to have been able to hold vessels of 500 tons.[1] Though nearly chocked with mud the stone face and entrance may still be seen. There was also a small building yard and a mast house.[2] On the creek two miles below the dock is a strong well built Martello tower called the *Mitatya Buruj* A little way from the fort, on the Vāghoṭan road, is the temple of Rāmeshvar, probably 100 years old, built by Gaṅgādhar Bhānu a brother of Nānā Faḍṇis (1720-1800). An ordinary temple with a large rest-house lying deep in a glen, its chief interest is the approach about 250 yards long, cut through rock fifty feet deep. The idol, a four-armed figure seated on a bull, is of solid silver said to weigh a hundredweight and is in good condition at present.

There is a big well at the entrance of the temple and also a high wooden mast used on a flag-pole by the temple authorities. The management of the temple at present rests with trustees five in number, appointed by the Civil Court in 1914. This Deosthān holds inām land and also a cash allowance of Rs. 334 per year from Government. The trustees have repaired the temple from time to time since 1914. The temple at present is in good condition. A fair is held for six days in the month of Māgha every year which is attended by about 5,000 people from nearby villages.

VIJAYAGAD.

Vijayagaḍ (Guhāgar T.), is a fort on the north bank of the Shāstrī, about two miles across the river from Jaigaḍ (Ratnāgirī T.; p. 2309). It is about a quarter of an acre in area and is surrounded on three sides by a ditch.

VAGHOTAN.

Vāghotaṇ (Devgaḍ T.; 16° 30' N. 73° 20' E; p. 545), is a small village and port on the south bank of the Vijayadurg river about fifteen miles from the coast. The landing stage is joined with Vijaydurg by a cart road, and lies on the main route to the Deccan through the Phoṇḍā pass. About 1850, with stones taken from the Khārepāṭan fort,[3] quays and a large number of district officers' and travellers' bungalows were built. The latter were sold by Government in public auction. The port has no trade. The river is navigable as far as Vāghoṭaṇ for vessels drawing seven feet of water.[4]

YESHVANTGAD FORT.

Yeshvantgaḍ Fort (Rājāpūr T.), on the north entrance of the Rājāpūr creek, with the sea on the south and a ditch to the north and west, has an area of about seven acres. Some parts of its outer

---

[1] Waddington's Report in Asiatic Journal. IX. 123.

[2] In 1819, the bottom of the dock, sloping gently upwards from the entrance, was thick with mud and sand. The gateway, 23 feet broad below and 37 above, stood open without gates. Of the walls parts on the south and east were cut in the rock; the rest was of masonry in good repair. From the south-east corner ran a stone-built water channel. Lieut. B. Dominicette, 9th June 1819 · Public Diaries 432 of 1819, 1065.

[3] Hydrographic Notice No. 17

[4] Government List of Civil Forts 1862.

CHAPTER 20.
Places.
YESHVANTGAD.
Fort.

walls and bastions are ruined. The supply of water is abundant. Reḍī* is a minor port at the foot of Yeshvantgaḍ, which was formerly a separate village and is now amalgamated in the town Nāṭē.

The volume of traffic that passed through the port in 1953-54 and 1954-55 is given below :—

		Imports. (tons).	Exports. (tons).
1953-54	..	285	2,483
1954-55	..	4,726	2,876

* Closed for shipping.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS.

EXPLANATION OF COLUMN HEADINGS, SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED.

The names of towns and villages are arranged in alphabetical order for the whole of the district.

Column 1.—The names are given both in English and Deonagari. The English spelling is marked diacritically as under :—

ā—आ ; ī—ई ; ū—ऊ ; ṛ—ऋ ; c—च् ; ch—छ् ;
ṭ—ट् ; ṭh—ठ् ; ḍ—ड् ; ḍh—ढ् ; n—न् ; ṅ—ङ् ;
ñ—ञ् ; ṇ—ण् ; s—स् ; ś—श् ; ṣ—ष् ; ḷ—ळ् ;
ĕ—ऍ

Abbreviations indicating Talukas

CLN.—Chiplun.
DPL.—Dapoli.
DGD.—Devgad.
GHR.—Guhagar.
KVL.—Kankavali.
KD.—Khed.
KDL.—Kudal.
LNJ.—Lanje.
MVN.—Malvan.
MDG.—Mandangad.
RJP.—Rajapur.
RTN.—Ratnagiri.
SGR.—Sangameshwar.
SWT.—Sawantwadi.
VGR.—Vengurla.

Column 2.—(*a*) Direction : (*b*) Travelling distance of the village from the Taluka Headquarters. Abbreviations used showing direction from Taluka Headquarters :—

E.—East
W.—West.
N.—North.
S.—South
NE.—North-East.
SE.—South-East.
NW.—North West.
SW.—South-West.
HQ.—Headquarters.

Column 3.—(*a*) Area (Sq. miles) ; (*b*) Total population ; (*c*) Number of households ; (*d*) Total number of Agricultural population.

Column 4.—(*a*) Post office ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column 5.—(*a*) Railway station ; (*b*) Its distance from the village,

Column 6.—(*a*) Weekly bazar ; (*b*) Bazar day ; (*c*) Distance of the bazar place from the village.

Column 7.—(*a*) Nearest motor stand ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column 8.—Drinking water facilities available in the village.

br.—brook.
cl.—canal.
n.—nalla.
o.—scarcity of water.
p.—pond.
pl.—pipe-line.
spr.—spring.
str.—stream.
t—tank.
W.—big well.
w.—small well.

Column 9.—Miscellaneous information about school, panchayat, co-operative society, temple, math, mosque, dargah, chavadi, gymnasium, library, dispensary, church and inscription.

Sl.—school ; (*h*).—high. (*m*).—middle. (pr.)—primary.

tr-clg.—Training College.

mun.—municipality.

pyt.—panchayat.

Cs.—co-operative society.

(c).—credit ; (fmg.).—farming ; (i).—industrial ; (con).—consumers ; (mis.).—miscellaneous ; (mp.).—multipurpose.; (sp.).—sale and purchase ; (wvg.).—weaving.

Fr.—fair.

Months according to Hindu Calendar :—

Ct.—Chaitra ; Vsk.—Vaisakha ; Jt.—Jaishtha ; Asd.—Ashadha ; Srn.—Shravana ; Bdp.—Bhadrapada ; An.—Ashvina ; Kt.—Kartika ; Mrg.—Margashirsha ; Ps.—Pausha ; Mg.—Magh ; Phg —Phalguna ; Sud.—Sudha (First fortnight of the month) ; Vad-Vadya (Second fortnight of the month).

tl.—temple.

m.—math.

mq.—mosque.

dg.—dargah.

dh.—dharamshala.

gym.—gymnasium.

ch.—chavadi.

lib.—library.

dp.—dispensary.

cch.—Church.

ins.—inscription.

N.B.—Figures for distance in columns (2), (4), (5), (6) & (7) stand for miles and furlongs.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name : Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1 Ābaloli ; GHR. ; आबलोली.	SE ; 20-0	3·2 ; 1039 ; 209 ; 681	Narwan 10-0
2 Ācare ; MVN. ; आचरे. .	N ; 13-0	4·2 ; 5648 ; 1119 ; 2623	Local.
3 Aḍakhal ; DPL. ; अडखळ.	NW ; 12-0	3·6 ; 1336 ; 342 ; 633	Harnai 3-0
4 Aḍakhal ; MDG. ; अडखळ.	SW ; 3-0	2·1 ; 561 ; 110 ; 484	Mandangad 120-0
5 Aḍāli ; SWT. ; आडाळी.	N ; 12-0	2·6 ; 457 ; 98 ; 230	Kalna 3-0
6 Āḍavali ; MVN. ; आडवली.	NE ; 21-0	3·3 ; 958 ; 210 ; 734	Shrawan 1-0
7 Āḍavali ; RJP. ; आडवली.	NE ; 14-0	3·4 ; 747 ; 141 ; 747	Saunda l 3-0
8 Āḍavali ; LNJ. ; आडवली.	NE ; 7-0	2·8 ; 957 ; 181 ; 877	Shiposhi 86-0
9 Adare ; CLN. ; अडरे . .	SE ; 8-0	3·8 ; 1600 ; 327 ; 1108	Local ..
10 Āḍhe ; DPL. ; आढे . .	NW ; 18-0	1·0 ; 2065 ; 486 ; 620	Local ..
11 Āḍeli ; VGR. ; आडेली . .	N ; 7-4	5·7 ; 2241 ; 427 ; 1706	Local ..
12 Aḍūr ; GHR. ; अडूर . .	S ; 10-0	6·6 ; 3644 ; 1096 ; 1284	Local ..
13 Āgar Naral ; RTN. ; आगर नरळ.	N ; 28-0	2·4 ; 770 ; 152 ; 409	Kesputi 5-0
14 Āgarvāyaṅgaṇi ; DPL. ; आगर वायंगणी.	S ; 15-0	3·8 ; 1073 ; 238 ; 824	Dabhal 6-0
15 Āgave ; RTN. ; आगवे. .	E ; 23-0	1·2 ; 310 ; 62 ; 307	Phungus 6-0
16 Āgave ; LNJ. ; आगवे . .	W ; 10-0	4·5 ; 1054 ; 204 ; 985	Pavas 8-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand: Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	93	.....	....	...	Guhagar	19-0	w.; cl.	Sl(pr).; Shimaga Fr. Phg. Sud. 9.
					Dabhol	28-0		
Kolhapur	80-0	Local	Sun.	...	Local	...	w.	7Sl (6pr; h).; pyt.; 2Cs(mp).; Shri Dev Rameshwar Fr. Ct. Sud. 1 to 15.; 11 tl.; 2mq. dh.; 2lib.; 2 dp.;
					Local			
Karad	110-0	Anjarle	..	2-0	Harnai	2-0	w.; rv.	4Sl (4 pr).; 2tl.; 2mg.; dg.;
					Harnai	3-0		
Mumbra	120-0	Panderi	Thu.	5-0	Mahad	24-0	w.;	Sl(pr).; Cs.; Hanuman Jayanti. Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 2tl.
					Mhapral	10-0		
Belgaum	80-0	Bandi	Mon.	6-0	Banda	6-0	w.; n.	Sl(pr).; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg Vad 7.; tl.; dh.; 6ch.
					Vengurla	24-0		
Kolhapur	74-0	Maldi	Sun.	0-4	Local	...	w.; n.	2Sl(2pr).; Vijayadashami Fr. An Sud. 10.; 5tl.; lib.
					Achare	....		
Kolhapur	100-0	Rajapur	Wed.	14-0	Oni	7-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					Musakaji	35-0		
Kolhapur	86-0	Lanje	Tue.	6-0	Lanje	7-0	w.	Sl (pr.); pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.
					Ratnagiri	35-0		
Karad	68-0		......		Chiplun	8-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; 3 tl.; lib.
					Chiplun	8-0		
Karad	116-0	Local	...	...	Harnai	4-0	w.	4 Sl (4 pr).; pyt.; 8 tl.; 2 mq.; dg.
					Harnai	6-0		
Belgaum	71-0	Vengurla	Mon.	7-0	Vengurla	7-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Someshwar Fr. Kt. Vad. 5.; 2 tl.; M.
					Vengurla	10-0		
Karad	90-0		......		Borya	1-4	w.	4 Sl (3 pr. hm).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 8 tl.; dg.; dh.; lib.
					Borya	1-4		
Kolhapur	90-0	Waravade	Daily	8-0	...	1-0	cl.; w.	Sl (pr).; Gramadevi's Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.; mq.
					Jaigad	12-0		
Karad	122-0	Dabhol	...	6-0	Dabhol	3-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; 2 tl.; lib.
					Dabhol	4-0		
Kolhapur	70-0	Phungus	Tue.	6-0	Tarwal	3-0	w. cl.; rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					Ratnagiri	16-0		
Kolhapur	94-0	Harchari	Mon.	8-0	Punas	5-0	rv.; cl.	2Sl (2 pr); pyt.; 4 tl.
					Ranpar	11-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.	Post Office ; Distance.
17 Agave ; CLN. ; आगवे ..	S ; 12-0	2·5 ; 967 ; 161 ; 884	Savarda 2-4
18 Āghāri; DPL. ; आघारी	SW ; 18-0	1·7 ; 518 ; 117 ; 236	Kolthare 3-0
19 Āi ; SWT. ; आई ..	.. 30-0	3·8 ; 1024 ; 258 ; 396	Belgaum 96-0
20 Ainavali ; KD. ; ऐनवली	E ; 4-0	1·6 ; 468 ; 83 ; 389	Tisangi 2-0
21 Ainavare ; KD. ; ऐनवरे	E ; 7-0	1·6 ; 558 ; 84 ; 464	Khojpi 6-0
22 Ainī ; KD. ; ऐनी ..	SW ; 6-0	2·0 ; 680 ; 133 ; 652	Murde 4-0
23 Ajagānv ; SWT. ; अजगांव.	SW ; 14-0	12·2 ; 5704 ; 1165 ; 3512	Local.
24 Ājivalī ; RJP. ; आजिवली	SE. 24-0	4·9 ; 1316 ; 247 ; 1265	Kharepatan 8-0
25 Ākale ; CLN. ; आकले ..	E ; 12-0	3·9 ; 1169 ; 272 ; 1096	Kalkaone 2-0
26 Ākeri ; KDL. ; आकेरी ..	E ; 9-0	4·9 ; 1705 ; 459 ; 1406	Sawantwadi 4-0
27 Alasure ; KD. ; अळसुरे	SW ; 2-4	1·2 ; 627 ; 100 ; 394	Khed 2-0
28 Alore ; CLN. ; अलोरे ..	E ; 9-0	1·5 ; 797 ; 161 ; 693	Shirgaon 1-0
29 Āmbadagānv ; SWT. ; आंबडगांव.	N ; 25-0	3·0 ; 707 ; 162 ; 511	Kasai 4-0
30 Āmbadapāl ; KDL. ; आंबडपाल.	E ; 2-0	0·8 ; 510 ; 94 ; 379	Kudal 1-4
31 Āmbadas ; KD. ; आंबडस.	SE ; 20-0	1·0 ; 1043 ; 206 ; 908	Parshuram 2-0
32 Āmbadave ; MDG. ; आंबडवे.	S ; 8-0	1·2 ; 209 ; 43 ; 189	Mandangad 8-0
33 Āmbados ; MVN. ; आंबडोस.	NE ; 9-0	4·5 ; 702 ; 147 ; 238	Chauke 2-0
34 Āmbatakhol ; CLN. ; आंबतखोल.	S ; 14-0	2·3 ; 980 ; 191 ; 918	Nandgaon 2-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	73-0	......			Chiplun	13-0	w. ; t.	SI (m). ; 3 tl.
Karad	122-0	Kolthare	...	3-0	Kolthare Dabhol	2-0 5-0	w.	SI (pr). ; tl.
Sakhali	....	Sakhali	Mon.	8-0	Dodamarga Vengurla	8-0 25-0	w. ; rv.	SI (pr). ; pyt. ; tl.
Karad	96-0	Khed	...	5-0	Khed	5-0	rv.	2 tl.
Karad	81-0	Khed	...	8-0	Khopi	4-0	w. ; rv.	SI (pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
Karad	91-0	Khed	...	5-0	Dasturi Naka Dasturi Naka.	2-0 2-0	w.	SI (pr). ; tl.
Belgaum	76.4	Shiroda	Sun.	15-0	Vengurla Vengurla	9-0 9-0	w.	6SI (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; Shri Dev Vetoba Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; and Mrg. Sud. 3. ; Shri Dev Khalnath Fr. Kt. Vad. 1. ; lch.
Kolhapur	42-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	8-0	Kharepatan Musakaji	8-0 36-0	w.	2SI (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 5tl.
Karad	55-0	......			Chiplun Chiplun	14-0 14-0	w. ; rv.	2SI (2 pr). ; 5 tl.
Belgaum	60-0	Sawantwadi	Tue.	4-0	Local Vengurla	.. 13-0	w.	2SI(2 pr). ; pyt. ; Rath Utsav Mg. Vad. 30. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; Temple of Shri Rameshwar.
Karad	75-0	Khed	..	3-0	Khed	3-0	w.	SI (pr). ; tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Karad	48-0	..	..	..	Chiplun Chiplun	12-0 12-0	rv. ; w.	2 SI (2 pr). ; 3 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Belgaum	92-0	Dicholi	Wed.	6-0	Banda Vengurla	19-0 25-0	w.	SI (pr). ; tl.
Belgaum	78-0	Kudal	Wed.	1-4	Kudal Vengurla	2-0 15-0	w.	SI (pr). ; Shri Dev Ling Fr. Kt. Sud. 9. ; tl.
Karad	34-0	Chiplun	...	8-0	Parshuram	2-0	w.	SI (pr). ; pyt. ; 3 tl.
Mumbra	123-0	Panderi	Thu.	4-0	.. Bankot	.. 12-0	d.	tl.
Kolhapur	82-0	Katta	Fri.	6-0	Salel Malvan	2-0 9-0	w.	SI (pr., m). ; Dahikala Fr. Kt. Vad. 1. ; 2 tl.
Karad	73	.....			Chiplun	13-0	w.	SI (pr.) ; tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
35 Āmbav ; SGR. ; आंबव..	W ;	24-0	2·1 ;	1113 ;	197 ;	884	Local.	...
36 Āmbavali (Bk.) ; DPL. ; आंबवली बुद्रुक.	NW ;	19-0	0·8 ;	198 ;	50 ;	175	Kelshi	2-0
37 Āmbavali Kh. ; DPL. ; आंबवली खुर्द.	W ;	6-0	0·7 ;	295 ;	70 ;	139	Murud	1-0
38 Āmbavali ; KD. ; आंबवली.	E ;	12-0	4·1 ;	958 ;	160 ;	755	Mahalunge	2-0
39 Ambavali ; MDG. ; आंबवली.	W ;	19-0	1·2 ;	384 ;	91 ;	321	Kelshi	6-0
40 Āmbavali ; SGR. ; आंबवली.	W ,	9-0	4·8 ;	1229 ;	264 ;	1117	Ambav	7
41 Āmbavaṇe Bk. ; MDG. ; आंबवणें बुद्रुक.	W ;	8-0	1·9 ;	412 ;	104 ;	320	Mandangad	10-0
42 Āmbavaṇe Kh. ; MDG. ; आंबवणें खुर्द.	S ;	5-0	1·8 ;	347 ;	83 ;	332	Mandangad	8-0
43 Āmbaye ; KD. ; आंबये..	N ;	6-0	4·4 ;	1467 ;	298 ;	1225	Murde	2-0
44 Āmbeḍu Bk. ; SGR. ; आंबेडू बुद्रुक.	NW ;	19-2	5·1 ;	1670 ;	350 ;	1181	Wandri	4
45 Āmbeḍu Kh. ; SGR. ; आंबेडू खुर्द.	NW ;	12-0	1·9 ;	840 ;	160 ;	655	Sangameshwar.	2
46 Āmbegaṇ ; MDG. ; आंबेगण.	...	..	0·2 ;	...	...	...	Deserted	...
47 Āmbegāṁv ; SWT. ; आंबेगांव.	N ;	5-0	4·5 ;	212 ;	55 ;	201	Kolgaon	6-0
48 Āmbeli ; SWT. ; आंबेली.	..	25-0	1·6 ;	161 ;	37 ;	141	Local	...
49 Āmbere Bk. ; CLN. ; आंबेरे बुद्रुक.	W ;	11-0	1·2 ;	287 ;	56 ;	263	Rampur	3-0
50 Āmbere Kh. ; GHR. ; आंबेरे खुर्द.	S ;	27-0	1·7 ;	490 ;	89 ;	487	Padven	6-0
51 Āmberi ; MVN. ; आंबेरी.	E ;	10-0	6·4 ;	2720 ;	554 ;	1629	Local	...
52 Āmberi ; KDL. ; आंबेरी.	E ;	16-0	2·6 ;	433 ;	105 ;	177	Mangaon	3-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand: Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	90	Makhjan	Sat.	3-0	Makhjan	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad	123-0	Kelshi	...	2-0	Harnai Harnai	8-0 8-0	w.; cl.	Sl (Pr).; pyt.; 2 tl.
Karad	107-0	Murud	...	1-0	Harnai Harnai	1-0 3-0	w.	tl.
Karad	76-0	Khed	...	12-0	Khed	12-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; Fr. Ct. Vad. 5.—after every 3 years.; 3tl.; dh.; lib.
Mumbra	100-0	Panderi	Thu.	18-0	...... Bankot	 3-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	68	Deorukh	Sun.	9	...	5-0	n.; rv.; w.	2 Sl (2Pr).; 4 tl.; mq.
Mumbra	102-0	Panderi	Thu.	3-0	...... Mhapral	 10-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; tl.
Mumbra	120-0	Panderi	Thu.	15-0	...... Mhapral	 15-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; tl.
Karad	85-0	Khed	...	6-0	Khed	6-0	w.; rv.	2Sl (2Pr).; Pyt.; Devichi Jatra: Ct. Vad. 3.; 5tl.
Kolhapur	79	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	7	Local	...	w.; rv. n.	4 Sl (4Pr).; Cs (mis).; Psh. Vad. 2 (Ur).; 4 tl.; mq.; dg.
Kolhapur	74	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	2	Sangmeshwar.	2-4	rv.; n.; w.	Sl (Pr).; tl.; mq.
		Deserted.						Deserted.
Belgaum	70-0	Sawantwadi.	Tue.	3-0	Sawantwadi Vengurla	8-0 15-0	w.	Dahikala Fr. Ps. Sud. 11.; tl.
Belgaum	42-0	Local	Sun.	...	Banda Vengurla	16-0 41-0	w.	Sl (m).; tl.
Karad	73-0		......		Chiplun	13-0	w.	2 tl.
Karad	112-0		......		Makhjan Jaigad	20-0 14-0	w.; cl.	Sl (Pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	84-0	Kat	Fri.	6-0	Chouke Malvan	3-0 10-0	w.	4 Sl (4Pr).; Sakaleshwar Fr. Kt. Sud. 7.; 2tl.; ch.; lib.
Belgaum	67-0	Mangaon	Tue.	2-0	Local Vengurla	 17-0	w.; rv.; p.	Sl (Pr).; Shri Dev Bhavai Fr. Mrg Sud. 3.; 7 tl.; 1 ch.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ Peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
53 Āmbet ; SGR. ; आंबेट..	... ...	0·2 ; 7 ; 1 ; 7	Makhjan 1
54 Āmbiṭagāṅv ; CLN. ; आंबिटगांव.	SE ; 20-0	2·3 ; 711 ; 138 ; 669	Nivli 3-0
55 Āmboli ; SWT. ; आंबोली.	NE ; 20-0	1·8 ; 1954 ; 394 ; 1645	Local ..
56 Āmbraḍ ; KDL. ; आंब्रड.	N ; 18-0	5·6 ; 2859 ; 558 ; 2590	Kasal 3-0
57 Āṇaderi ; BGR. ; आणदेरी.	S ; 22-0	2·0 ; 467 ; 96 ; 435	Nayri 2
58 Anāri ; CLN., अनारी..	SE : 11-0	3·0 ; 979 ; 192 ; 953	Adare 3-0
59 Āṇaspure ; KD., आणस्पुरे.	S ; 17-0	1·1 ; 290 ; 67 ; 195	Anajani 5-0
60 Aṇāv, KDL., अंणाव ..	N ; 6-0	4·6 ; 2025 ; 313 ; 1819	Local ...
61 Āṅgaḷe ; RJP. ; आगळे..	E ; 8-0	3·3 ; 890 ; 166 ; 776.	Rajapur 1-0
62 Āṅgavaḷi ; SGR. ; आगवळो.	E ; 8-0	3·2 ; 1049 ; 207 ; 1019.	Local ...
63 Āñjanari ; LNJ. ; .. आंजणारी.	N ; 8-0	1·6 ; 708 ; 139 ; 660.	Nanij 3-4
64 Āñjanavel ; GHR. ; अंजनवेल.	N ; 10-0	3·7 ; 1847 ; 464 ; 636.	Peth Anjanwel. 0-4
65 Āñjanavel (Peṭh) ; GHR. ; अंजनवेल (पेठ).	N ; 10-0	0·8 ; 698 ; 169 ; 39.	Local ..
66 Āñjaṇi ; KD. ; आंजणी.	S ; 10-5	3·6 ; 1654 ; 324 ; 1350.	Local ...
67 Āñjarle ; DPL. ; आंजर्ले.	NW ; 12-0	2·2 ; 2319 ; 470 ; 962.	Local ...
68 Āñjivaḍe ; KDL. ; आंजिवडे.	E ; 28-0	2·9 ; 315 ; 65 ; 285.	Mangaon 14-0
69 Aṇasure ; RJP. ; अणसुरे.	SW ; 17-0	3·5 ; 2736 ; 571 ; 981.	Local ...

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	89-0	Makhjan	Sat.	1-0	Makhjan	1-4	rvr.	
Karad	80-0	......			Chiplun	12-0	w. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
Belgaum	42-0	Local	Sun.	...	Local Vengurla	... 35-0	rv. ; w. ; pl ; spr.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs(cm). ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; 5 tl. ; 5 dh. ; lib. ; dp. ; Cch.
Kolhapur	65-0	Kasal	Thu.	3-0	Kasal Malvan	3-0 27-0	w.	5 tl. ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 9 tl. ; mq. ; lib.
Kolhapur	78-0	Nayri	Wed.	2-0	...	12-0	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Karad	65-0	......			Chiplun	5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shimaga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
Karad	75-0	Chiplun	...	10-0	Khed	17-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Holi Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
Belgaum	80-0	Sukalwadi	Sat.	3-0	Anav Malvan	... 26-0	w. ; rv.	4 Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Swayambhu Fr. Mrg. Sud. 3. ; 5 tl. ; M.
Kolhapur	60-0	Rajapur	Mon.	1-0	Kondye Musakaji	6-0 23-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 3tl.
Kolhapur	86-0	Deorukh	Sun.	8-0	Sangameshwar.	8-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; Cs. ; tl. ; M. ; dp.
Kolhapur	71-0	Harcheri	Mon.	8-0	...... Ratnagiri	2-0 17-0	w. ; cl.	Sl r(p). ; 2tl. ; mq.
Karad	90-0	......			Guhagar Dabhol	10-0 2-4	w. ; rv. ; n.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; 4tl. ; mq. dg. ; lib. ; dp.
Karad	90-0	......			Guhagar Dabhol	10-0 2-4	w. ; ...	mq. ; Fort.
Karad	72-0	Khed	......	12-0	Lavel	3-4	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; G. pyt. ; 6tl. ; lib.
Karad	110-0	Local	......	...	Adbhal Harnai	... 3-0	w.	3 Sl (2 pr. m). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; (Ganapati fair). ; 12 tl. ; Mq. ; 3dh. ; 2 Dp. ; 2 dp.
Belgaum	80-0	Dukanwad	Sun.	5-0	Nerur K. Narur. Vengurla	... 5-0 34-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. Ps. Sud. 3. ; tl.
Kolhapur	75-0	Konde	...	44-0	...... Musakaji	 9-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Mrg. Sud. 1. ; 2 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.	Post Office ; Distance.
70 Āntravalī; SGR.; अंत्रवली	N ; 16-0	2·1 ; 960 ; 217 ; 784.	Nayri 6-0
71 Āpaṭī ; DPL ; आपटी	E ; 6-0	1·4 ; 423 ; 88 ; 419.	Camp Dapoli. 5-0
72 Āpeḍe ; KD. ; आपेडे ..	NE ; 8-0	1·8 ; 631 ; 121 ; 429.	Khavati 6-0
73 Āragāṅv ; LNJ. ; आरगांव	SE ; 19-0	4·5 ; 1086 ; 225 ; 1031.	Vaked 6-0
74 Āravalī ; VGR. ; आरवली	S ; 8-0	3·9 ; 5135 ; 1033 ; 2677.	Local ...
75 Āravalī ; SGR. ; आरवली	N ; 22-0	2·6 ; 1541 ; 298 ; 1368.	Local ...
76 Ārĕ ; GHR. ; आरे ..	N ; 3-0	4·1 ; 1600 ; 398 ; 1051.	Local ...
77 Ārĕ ; RTN. ; आरे ..	N ; 6-4	0·6 ; 318 ; 59 ; 197.	Basani 1-0
78 Ārĕ ; DDG. ; आरे ..	E ; 19-0	7·9 ; 1382 ; 282 ; 1255.	Bidwadi 11-0
79 Arondā ; SWT. ; आरोंदा	S ; 16-0	3·7 ; 4490 ; 944 ; 1688.	Local ...
80 Āros ; SWT. ; आरोस.	S ; 11-0	6·1 ; 1935 ; 400 ; 1294.	Local ...
81 Asagaṇī ; MVN. ; असगणी	E ; 22-0	2·6 ; 599 ; 113 ; 576.	Ramgad 2-0
82 Asagaṇī ; KD. ; असगणी	S ; 9-0	2·6 ; 586 ; 127 ; 557.	Anjani 3-0
83 Āsage ; LNJ. ; आसगे	SW ; 4-0	3·1 ; 1038 ; 186 ; 925.	Nanij 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	77-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	6-0	Kasba Sangameshwar.	5-0	rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; tl. ; dg.
Karad	114-0	Camp Dapoli.	...	5-0	Dapoli Harnai	7-0 13-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl.
Karad	91-0	Khed	...	6-0	Udhale	3-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3tl.
Kolhapur	90-0	Lanje	Tue.	10-0	Watul Ratnagiri	7-0 45-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). Shri Dev Kedar Ling Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10. ; 4 tl.
Belgaum	78-0	Shiroda	Sun.	2-0	Vengurla Vengurla	6-0 7-0	w.	7 Sl (7 pr). ; pyt. ; 2 Cs (mp). 12 tl. ; 2 lib. ; dp. ; Cch. ; Shri Vetoba Temple Vetoba Fr. Kt. ; Sud. 15. ; Mrg. Sud. 15. ; Sateri. Fr. Mg. Sud. 2. and 5. ; Jagabai Fr. Kt. Vad. 15. ; Giroba Fr. Mg. Sud. 8.
Kolhapur	83-0		......		......		......	......
Karad	92-0	Local	Sat.	...	Sawantwadi. Vengurla	16-0 14-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp) .; Shri Devi Bhadrakali Fr. Mrg. Sud. 4. ; Shri Dev Vishnu Swami Fr. Mrg. Vad. 3. ; 18 tl. ; mg. ; lib., 4 dp. ; Cch.
Kolhapur	85-0		......		Guhagar Dabhol	3-0 8-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; 11 tl. ; dg. ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; Dev Divali Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.
Kolhapur	85-0		......		......		......	......
Belgaum	77-0	Makhjan	Sat.	5-0	......		w.	Sl (pr). ; 3tl. ; Hot springs.
Belgaum	72-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	7-0	Ratnagiri	6-4	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	71-0	Tale Bazar.	Thu.	9-0	Deogad	5-0	w. ; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; Cs (mp). ; 6 tl.
Karad	72-0	Local	Wed.	...	Malewad Vengurla	3-0 12-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 8. , Giroba Fr. Mrg. Sud. 9. ; Khalnath Fr. Ps. Sud. 6. ; 8 tl. ; 2 dh.
Kolhapur	84-0	Ramgad	Mon.	2-0	Ramgad Malvan	3-0 18-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Vad. 6. ; 3tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.		Direction from the taluka/ Peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural Population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
84 Asagoli ; असगोली	GHR. ;	S ;	1–4	2·8 ;	1110 ;	257 ;	540.	Guhagar	2–0
85 Asalade ; असळदे	KVL. ;	NW ;	22–0	3·8 ;	1126 ;	251 ;	384.	Local	...
86 Asaṇiye ; असणिये	SWT. ;	E ;	17–4	3·0 ;	524 ;	124 ;	511.	Tamboli	3–0
87 Asaroḍi ; असरोडी	MVN. ;	E ;	28–0	4·6 ;	1457 ;	315 ;	1130.	Local	...
88 Āsāvale ; आसावले	MDG. ;	W ;	10–0	0·9 ;	157 ;	36 ;	153.	Mandangad	6–0
89 Asāve ; असावे	SGR. ;	W ;	1–4	0·7 ;	159 ;	37 ;	156.	Makhjan	2–0
90 Āsiye ; आशिये	KVL. ;	SW ;	0–7	1·2 ;	555 ;	114 ;	421.	Kankavli	2–0
91 Asoḍe ; असोडे	LNJ. ;	NW	12–6	1·7	660 ;	129	618.	Pali	4–0
92 Āsolipāl ; आसोलीपाल	VGR. ;	SE	5–4	7·7	3760 ;	728	2603.	Aravli	3–0
93 Asonḍ ; DPL. ; असोंड.		SE	13–0	2·8	800 ;	180 ;	609.	Wakaoli	5–0
94 Asore ; GHR. ; असोरे.		S ;	25–0	1·5 ;	437 ;	118 ;	355.	Palven	12–0
95 Āstān ; KD. ; आस्तान.		S ;	18–0	5·1 ;	648 ;	119 ;	538.	Mahalunge	3–0
96 Āsṭi ; KD. ; आष्टी ..		S ;	11–0	1·2 ;	636 ;	135 ;	543.	Shiv Bk.	3–0
97 Āsud ; DPL. ; आसूद ..		W ;	5–0	2·6 ;	1604 ;	351 ;	692.	Murud	1–0
98 Asurḍe ; CLN. ; असुर्डे.		S ;	15–0	3·6 ;	1721 ;	326 ;	1656.	Aravli	4–0
99 Asurḍe ; SGR. ; असुर्डे.		NW ;	13–0	1·9 ;	563 ;	107 ;	431.	Sangameshwar.	2–0
100 Ātale ; MDG. ; आतले.		SW ;	13–0	1·9 ;	313 ;	79 ;	319.	Mandangad	13–0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance		Drinking water facilities ;	Institutions and other information.
Karad	90-0	Khed	...	8-0	Level	1-4	w.	2 SI (2 pr). ; 3tl. ; mq.
Kolhapur	58-0	Lanje	Tue.	4-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	4-0 27-0	w.	SI (pr). ; Cs (cr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 3tl.
Belgaum	80-0	......			Guhagar Palshet	3-0 3-0	w.	SI (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Vad. 1. ; 4 tl. ; Remains of a Mansion built in Peshawa period.
Kolhapur	66-0	Kolashi	Wed.	2-0	Local Deogad	... 22-0	w.	2 SI (2 pr). ; 4 tl. ; dg. ; dh.
Mumbra	12-0	Banda	Mon.	8-0	Banda Vengurla	9-0 28-0	n.	SI (pr). ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	89-0	Kankavli	Tue.	9-0	Kasal Malvan	3-0 20-0	w.	2 SI (2 pr). ; Mrg. Vad. 3. ; lib.
Kolhapur	60-0	Panderi	Thu.	2-0	...... Mhapral	 8-0	spr. ;	tl.
......		Makhjan	Sat.	2-0	......	1-4	rsr.	tl.
......		Kankavli	Tue.	2-0	Kankavli Deogad	1-0 46-0	w.	SI (pr). ; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	89-0	Harcheri	Mon.	5-0	Pali Ratnagiri	6-0 15-0	cl.	SI (pr). ; tl.
Belgaum	74-0	Shiroda	Sun.	3-4	Vengurla Vengurla	5-0 10-0	w.	4 SI (2 pr, 2m). ; Shri Dev Khajanadevi Fr. Kt. Vad. 5. ; 7 tl. ; dh.
Karad	100-0	Wakaoli	...	5-0	Degaon Dabhol	4-0 14-0	w.	SI (pr). ; 5 tl.
Karad	101-0	......			Makhjan Dabhol	14-0 36-0	w. ; cl.	SI (pr). ; tl.
Satara Road	80-0	Khed	...	12-0	Khed	18-0	w. ; rv.	SI (pr). ; 2 tl.
Karad	75-0	Khed	...	6-0	Khed	9-0	w.	SI (pr). ; Ur Mg. Vad. 5. ; 2 tl. ; 3 mq. ; dg.
Karad	104-0	Murud	......	1-0	Local Harnai	... 4-0	w. ; cl.	2 SI (2 pr). ; pyt. ; 8 tl. ; M. dg.
Karad	74-0	......			Chiplun	14-0	w.	2 SI (2 pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	72-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	2-0	Sangameshwar.	1-0	rsr. ; n.	SI (pr). ; 3 tl.
Mumbra	124-0	Panderi	Thu.	12-0	Mhapral	20-0	cl. ; rit. ; o.	2 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
101 Ātagāṅv ; DPL. ; आतगांव.	NW ;	18-0	0·8 ;	504 ;	101 ;	353.	Kelshi	0-4
102 Āvāḍe ; SWT. ; आवाडे.	NE ;	29-4	0·1 ;	134 ;	30 ;	58.	Bhedshi	1-0
103 Āvaḷegāṅv ; KDL. ; आवळेगांव.	E ;	9-0	3·8 ;	1814 ;	305 ;	1675.	Digas	2-0
104 Āvare ; GHR. ; आवरे	S ;	23-0	3·1	682 ;	141	610.	Padven	7-0
105 Āvāśī ; KD. ; आवाशी	SW ;	12-0	2·0	553 ;	107	428.	Lavel	2-0
106 Āvāśī ; DPL. ; आवाशी	N ;	18-0	2·5	671 ;	132 ;	480.	Kudawale	3-0
107 Āyanāḍe ; SWT. ; आयनाडे.	E ;	35-0	2·6	437 ;	96 ;	369.	Bhedshi	7-0
108 Āyanaḷ ; KVL. ; .. आयनळ.	S ;	7-0	4·8	1050 ;	225 ;	912.	Kolashi	4-0
109 Bāg-Abdul Kādir ; RJP. ; बाग अब्दुल कादीर	S ;	5-0	0·1	108 ;	21 ;	81.	Rajapur	4-0
110 Bāg-Āgāśe ; RTN. ; .. बाग आगाशे.	S ;	...	...	...	...	...	Deserted	—
111 Bāgamaḷā ; DGD. ; बागमळा.	S ;	9-0	0·7	281 ;	63 ;	218.	Mithbaon	3-0
112 Bāg-Pāṭoḷe ; RTN. ; बागपाटोळे.	E ;	15-0	0·1	95 ;	23 ;	85.	Ibhrampattan.	3-0
113 Bāg-Kājī Husain ; RJP. ; बाग-काजी हुसेन.	S ;	4-0	0·1	80 ;	7 ;	19.	Rajapur	3-0
114 Bahiravalī ; KD. ; बहिरवली .	N ;	22-0	3·6 ;	1617 ;	350 ;	572.	Aini	2-0
115 Bāg-taḷavaḍe ; DGD. ; बागतळवडें.	E ;	11-0	0·1 ;	133 ;	27 :	120.	Tale Bazar	2-0
116 Bākāḷe ; RJP. ; बाकाळें.	W ;	18-0	1·0 ;	232 ;	48 ;	158.	Mithgavne	2-0
117 Bāmaṇaghar ; MDG. ; बामणघर.	S ;	6-0	1·5 ;	335 ;	80 ;	253.	Palavni	6-0
118 Bāmaṇolī ; SGR. ; बामणोली.	E ;	14-0	10·5 ;	1346 ;	282 ;	1311.	Deorukh	13-0
119 Bāmaṇolī ; CLN. ; बामणोली.	S ;	20-0	3·3 ;	1057 ;	222 ;	879.	Chiveli	2-0
120 Bāmbarḍe ; SWT. ; बांबर्डे.	E ;	37-0	3·6 ;	34 ;	8 ;	34.	Bhedshi	8-0

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance. Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad 123-0	Kelshi ... 0-4	Harnai 5-0 Harnai 9-0	w. ; t.	tl.
Belgaum 93-0	Bhedshi Sun. 1-0	Banda 23-0 Vengurla 42-0	w. ; rv.	mq. ; 15 dg.
Kolhapur 80-0	Kadaval Fri. 1-4	Local ... Malvan 32-0	w.	pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; Shri Dev Datta Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; 8 tl. dp.
Karad 96-0	......	Guhagar 21-0 Dabhol 33-0	rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Karad 73-0	Khed ... 12-0	Local ...	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Karad 113-0	Kudawa ... 3-0	Dapoli 18-0 Harnai 23-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Belgaum 35-0	Bhedshi Sun. 7-0	Konalkatta 4-0 Vengurla 48-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; tl.
Kolhapur 64-0	Koloshi Wed. 4-0	Nandgaon 4-0 Deogad 24-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Dev Diwali Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur 84-0	Rajapur Wed. 4-0	Rajapur 5-0 Musakaji 12-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; mq.
....	Deserted	....	...	Deserted.
Kolhapur 78-0	Mithbaon Sat. 2-0	Mithbaon 2-4	w.	tl.
Kolhapur 89-0	Tonde Sat. 1-4	 5-0	rv.	
Kolhapur 83-0	Rajapur Wed. 3-0	Rajapur 4-0 Musakaji 12-0	w.	dg.
Karad 75-0	Khed ... 14-0	Lote 12-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; Cs (fmg). ; Ibrahim Shaikh Ur Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 ; 2 tl. ; 5 mq. ; dg.
Kolhapur 74-0	Tale Bazar Thu. 2-0	Deogad 11-2	w.	
Kolhapur 75-0	Rajapur Wed. 20-0	Rajapur 18-0 Musakaji 9-0	w.	tl.
Mumbra 113-0	Panderi Thu. 7-0	Dasgaon 16-0 Mhapral 15-0	w. ; rv.	2 tl.
Kolhapur 60-0	Deorukh Sun. 13-0	 7-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 2 tl.
Karad 75-0	....	Chiplun 15-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
Belgaum 94-4	Bhedshi Sun. 8-0	Konalkatta 6-0 Vengurla 52-0	w.	

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/Peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
121 Bāmbarḍe Tarf Kaḷasūḷī ; KDL. ; बांबर्डे तर्फ कळसुली.	NE ; 3-0	4·8 ; 2058 ; 385 ; 1584.	Local ...
122 Bāmbarḍe Tarf Mānagāṇv ; KDL. बांबर्डे तर्फ माणगांव.	E ; 4-0	3·2 ; 1432 ; 274 ; 1104.	Bibavane 2-0
123 Bāmbuḷī Tarf Havelī ; KDL. ; बांबुळी तर्फ हवेली.	N ; 3-0	1·7 ; 839 ; 159 ; 694.	Kudal 2-0
124 Bānde ; SWT. ; बांदे. .	S ; 8-0	4·0 ; 4154 ; 801 ; 1130.	Local ...
125 Bāndhativare ; DPL. ; बांधतिवरे	N ; 5-0	2·9 ; 603 ; 132 ; 472.	Camp-Dapoli 5-0
126 Bāndivaḍe ; RJP. ; . . बांदिवडे.	S ; 14-0	0·6 ; 375 ; 69 ; 231.	Kharepatan 6-0
127 Bāndivaḍe Bk. ; MVN. ; बांदिवडे बुद्रुक	NE ; 14-0	4·0 ; 1853 ; 383 ; 1339.	Local ...
128 Bāndīvaḍe Kh. ; MVN. ; बांदिवडे खुर्द.	NE ; 12-0	0·037 ; 243 ; 55 ; 147.	Bandivade Bk. 0-4
129 Bāpere ; LNJ. ; बापेरे.	W ; 7-0	3·1 ; 674 ; 120 ; 506.	Satavli 5-0
130 Bāparḍe ; DGD. ; बापर्डे.	W ; 12-0	5·6 ; 1501 ; 292 ; 1256.	Local ...
131 Bārasū ; RJP. ; बारसू. .	S ; 5-0	5·0 ; 410 ; 77 ; 397.	Rajapur 5-0
132 Barj-Khol ; RTN. ; बर्ज-खोल.	N ; 34-0	0·1 ;	....
133 Basaṇi ; RTN. ; बसणी.	N ; 5-7	1·4 ; 1053 ; 233 ; 695.	Local ...
134 Bāv ; KDL. ; बाव . .	NW ; 3-0	2·1 ; 1284 ; 227 ; 942.	Kudal 3-0
135 Bālvaāṭ ; SWT. ; बावळाट.	E ; 8-0	2·0 ; 366 ; 61 ; 310.	Danoli 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	4-0	Kudal Malvan	3-0 92-0	w.	4 Sl (3 pr, m). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Ling Fr. Kt. Sud. 10. ; 8 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	5-0	Loc Vengurla	... 17-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Rameshwar Fr. Mrg. Sud. 2. ; 3tl.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	2-0	Kudal Vengurla	3-0 16-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; Cs (mp). ; Shri Dev Brahmaheshwar Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; 4tl.
Belgaum	71-0	Local	Mon	...	Local Vengurla	... 24-0	w. rv.	5 Sl (5 pr). ; pyt. : 2Cs. (con. mis). ; Shri Dev Bandeshwar Fr. Mrg. Vad. 1. ; 14tl. ; 4 M. ; 2mq. 4dg. ; 3dh. ; lib. ; 4 dp.
Karad	104-0	Camp-Dapoli	...	5-0	Dapoli Harnai	5-0 13-0	cl.	Sl (pr). ; 9 tl.
Kolhapur	90-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	...... Musakaji	 24-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; tl.
Kolhapur	100-0	Masura	Thu.	1-0	Masura Malvan	0-4 14-0	w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m). ; Cs (mp.) ; Devichi Yatra in Ps. ; 12 tl. M. 2 dh.
Kolhapur	100-0	Masura	Thu.	1-0	Masura Malvan	1-4 14-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	83-0	Reni Bk.	Tue.	8-0	... Ratnagiri	7-0 36-0	w. cl.	Sl (pr). ; Ps. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	7-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	6-0	Vijaydurg ...	20-0 ...	w. rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; 12 tl.
Kolhapur	85-0	Rajapur	Wed.	5-0	Rajapur Musakaji	5-0 10-0	w. n.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
...	..	Deserted.						Deserted.
Kolhapur	65-0	Ratnagiri	Daily.	6-0	... Ratnagiri	2-0 6-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (i). ; Kt. Vad. 15. ; 7 tl. ; A mansion built in Peshwa period.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	3-0	Kudal Vengurla	4-0 17-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Sidheshwar Fr. Kt. Vad. 30. ; 9 tl.
Belgaum	54-0	Danoli	Sun.	3-0	Danoli Vengurla	3-0 22-0	w. ; rv	Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Vad. 30. ; tl.

Serial No. : Village/Town name : Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
136 Bāvaśī ; KVL. ; बावशी	N.E ; 9-4	2·0 ; 509 ; 97 ; 444.	Phonda 7-0
137 Beḷaṇē Kh. ; KVL. ; बेळणें खुर्द	N. ; 6-4	1·5 ; 347 ; 66 ; 277.	Kankavli 5-4
138 Beṇī Bk. ; LNJ. ; बेणी बुद्रुक	W. ; 18-0	2·3 ; 820 ; 164 ; 708.	Satavli 4-0
139 Benī Kh. : LNJ. ; बेनी खुर्द	E. ; 3-0	2·5 ; 578 ; 102 ; 568.	Lanje 4-0
140 Beḷārī Bk. ; SGR. ; बेलारी बुद्रुक	E. ; 5-0	3·3 ; 561 ; 108 ; 561.	Deorukh 2-0
141 Beḷārī Kh. ; SGR. ; बेलारी खुर्द	E. ; 6-0	0·5 ; 48 ; 9 ; 48.	Deorukh 7-0
142 Berle ; KVL. ; बेर्ले ..	N. ; 32-0	1·0 ; 226 ; 43 ; 205.	Nadgive 3-0
143 Bhaḍagāṅv ; KD. ; भडगांव	N.W. ; 1-4	3·8 ; 779 ; 156 ; 677.	Khed 1-0
144 Bhaḍagāṅv Bk. ; KDL. ; भडगांव बुद्रुक	E. ; 14-0	3·8 ; 577 ; 110 ; 534.	Digas 6-0
145 Bhaḍagāṅv Kh. ; KDL. ; भडगांव खुर्द	E. ; 16-0	2·8 ; 355 ; 56 ; 355.	Digas 8-0
146 Bhaḍavale ; DPL. ; भडवळे	S. ; 27-0	2·6 ; 717 ; 152 , 455.	Ayani 6-0
147 Bhaḍakambe ; SGR. ; भडकंबे	S. ; 11-0	3·5 ; 1460 ; 252 ; 1342.	Sakharpa 1-4
148 Bhaḍe ; LNJ. ; भडे ..	W. ; 12-0	6·0 ; 1003 ; 217 ; 819.	Gavade Ambere 4-0
149 Bhagavantagaḍ (Peth) MVN. ; भगवंतगड (पेठ)	E. ; 10-0	0·1 ; 147 ; 30 ; 118.	Chindar 4-0
150 Bhāḷāval ; SWT. ; भालावल	S.E ; 9-0	1·6 ; 341 ; 71 ; 232.	Tamboli 2-0
151 Bhāḷāvali ; RJP. ; भाळावली	W. ; 12-0	8·2 ; 1869 ; 370 ; 1593.	Local ..
152 Bhāmbeḍ ; LNJ. ; भांबेड	E. ; 12-0	6·4 ; 1843 ; 329 ; 1727.	Local ..

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities ;	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	55-0	Phonda	Mon.	7-0	Phonda Vijaydurg	7-0 34-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl.
Kolhapur	58-0	Kankavli	Tue.	5-4	Kankavli Vijaydurg	5-4 37-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2t.
Kolhapur	90-0	Local	Sun.	...	Lanje Purnagad	15-0 12-0	w. ;n. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl.
Kolhapur	84-0	Lanje	Tue.	4-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	3-0 29-0	w.	2tl.
Kolhapur	67-0	Deorukh	Sun.	2-0	Deorukh ...	5-0 ...	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (pr). ; 2tl.
Kolhapur	92-0	Deorukh	Sun.	7-0	Deorukh ...	6-0 ...	n.	
Kolhapur	80-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	Kharepatan Vijaydurg	8-0 38-0	w.	tl.
Karad	84-0	Khed	...	1-0	Khed ...	1-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr).
Kolhapur	85-0	Kadaval	Fri.	2-0	Kadaval Malvan	4-0 51-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. Mrg. Vad. 7. ; 5tl.
Kolhapur	86-0	Kadaval	Fri.	4-0	Kadaval Malvan	4-0 53-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Devi Laxmi Fr. Mrg Vad. 10. ; 3tl.
Karad	108-0	Ayani	...	6-0	Dabhol Dabhol	6-0 13-0	w. ; n. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 4tl.
Kolhapur	52-0	Sakharpa	Sat.	2-0	Sakharpa ...	1-4 ...	w. ; n.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Krt. Sud. 10 to 15. 5tl. ; mq. ; lib.
Kolhapur	90-0	Beni Bk.	Sun.	6-0	... Ranpar	... 7-0	w. ; n.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Kt. Sud. 10 to 11. ; 3tl. ; dh.
Kolhapur	85-0	Chindar	Fri.	4-0	Masura Malvan	1-4 13-0	w.	Sl (pr).
Belgaum	72-0	Banda	Mon.	4-0	Sawantwadi Vengurla	6-0 20-0	t. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; Sateri Fr. Mrg. Sud. 3. tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Beni Bk. ;	Sat.	6-0	.... Musakaji	 8-0	w. ; rv.	4 Sl (4 pr.) ; pyt. ; Shri Jakhildevi Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; 5 tl. ; dg. ; dh.
Kolhapur	89-0	Lanja	Tue.	9-0	Local Bhambed	.. 38-0	w. ; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr.) ; pyt. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl. ; dg. ; lib. ; dp.

Serial No. Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
153 Bhāmaghar ; MDG.; भामघर	W; 11-0	1.8; 306; 72; 296.	Bankot 9-0
154 Bhānaghar ; DPL.; भानघर	N; 3-0	1.6; 253; 61; 152	Kudawale 4-0
155 Bharāḍe ; RJP.; भरडे (wada)	W; 16-0	0.9; 118; 26; 109.	Wadanavadar 5-0
156 Bharaṇẽ ; KD.; भरणें	E; 1-0	1.5; 780; 140; 609.	Khed 1-0
157 Bharaṇī ; KVL.; भरणी	W; 7-0	2.2; 582; 114; 566.	Bidwadi 3-0
158 Bharaṇī ; KDL.; भरणी	NE; 24-0	3.2; 837; 142; 751.	Jambhavade 2-0
159 Bhātagāṅv ; GHR.; भातगाव	SE; 31-0	6.0; 1886; 402; 1707.	Veer 4-0
160 Bhāṭaghar ; DPL.; भाटघर	N; 18-0	0.9; 166; 38; 131.	Palgad 5-0
161 Bhāṭye ; RTN.; भाटये	S; 1-0	1.2; 1293; 274; 247.	Ratnagiri 1-0
162 Bhāve Āḍob ; RTN.; भावे आडोब	N; 11-0	0.1; 437; 94; 415.	Kotavde 2-0
163 Bhekūrlī ; SWT.; भेकुर्ली	E; 39-0	3.1; 216; 38; 214.	Bhedshi 4-0
164 Bhike Koṇāḷ ; SWT.; भिके कोनाळ	SW; 18-0	1.2; 202; 39; 172.	Kalne 6-0
165 Bhiḷe ; CLN.; भिळे ..	W; 6-0	3.0; 1446; 275; 1062.	Kaluste 1-4
166 Bhiṅgaḷolī ; MDG.; भिंगळोली	W; 1-0	1.4; 179; 45; 98.	Mandangad 1-0
167 Bhirkuṇḍe ; SGR.; भिरकुंडे	NW; 13-0	0.7; 258; 53; 254.	Local ..
168 Bhiravaṇḍe ; KVL.; भिरवंडे	E; 8-0	5.9; 3018; 659; 1500.	Local ..
169 Bheḷasai ; KD.; भेळसई	E; 18-0	6.7; 2203; 419; 2125.	Local ..

Railway St. : Distance.	Weekly Bazar : Bazar Day : Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance. Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Mumbra 119-0	Mhapral Fri. 11-0	... Mhapral 15-0	w.	SI (pr.).; tl.
Karad 107-0	Kudawale .. 4-0	Harnai 15-0	w.	2 tl.
Kolhapur 94-0	Rajapur Wed. 17-0	Rajapur 17-0 Musakaji 6-0	w.	SI (pr.): 2 tl.
Karad 84-0	Khed .. 1-0	Local	w.; rv.	SI (pr.).; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.; Kalakai devi.
Kolhapur 65-0	Kankavli Tue. 3-0	Kankavli 3-0 Deogad 24-0	w.	SI (pr.); tl.
Kolhapur 61-0	Ghotage Sat. 2-0	Nirukhe 5-0 Malvan 32-0	w.	SI (pr.).; Shri Dev Ling Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.
Karad 105-0	....	Mahjan 8-0 Jaigad 12-0	l.; w.; pit.; n.	2 SI (2 pr.); pyt.; Ramjanma Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; Krishna Jayanti Fr.; Srn. Vad. 8.; 6 tl.
Karad 121-0	Palgad .. 5-0	Palgad 3-0 Harnai 30-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur 89-0	Ratnagiri Daily 1-0	.... Ranpar 5-0	w.	2 SI (2 pr.).; Darga, Fr. Mg. Sud. 15.; 2 mq.; dg.
Kolhapur 89-0	Ratnagiri Daily 7-0	.. 5-0 Ratnagiri 9-0	w.; cl.	2 tl.
Belgaum 90-0	Bhedshi Sun. 4-0	Banda 36-0 Vengurla 35-0	w.; rv.	SI (pr).; tl.
Belgaum 81-4	Banda Mon. 10-0	Banda 8-0 Vengurla 34-0	t.	tl.
Karad 67-0	...	Chiplun 7-0	w.; t.; dam.	2 SI (3 pr.).; 7 tl.
Mumbra 110-0	Mhapral Fri. 10-0	.. Mhapral 10-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur 73-0	Sangameshwar Wed. 1	Sangameshwar 3-0 ...	n.; rsr.	SI (pr.).; tl.
Kolhapur 70-0	Kanedi Sun. 2-0	Kankavli 7-0 Deogad 52-0	w.	4 SI (4 pr).; pyt.; Nam-Saptah: Mg. Sud. 7. Shimga Fr. An. Sud. 15.; Fr. Mrg. Sud. 14.; tl.
Karad 36-0	Chiplun .. 6-0	Khed 22-0	w.	3 SI (3 pr).; pyt.; Cs.; 9 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Offices ; Distance.
170 Bhoke ; RTN. ; भोके	E ; 10-0	5·1 ; 1358 ; 302 ; 1273.	Harkhamba 4-0
171 Bhoiavalī MDG. ; भोंळवली	SE ; 13-0	2·4 ; 723 ; 156 ; 670.	Latwan 2-0
172 Bhom ; CLN. ; भोम	W ; 9.0	3·1 ; 1311 ; 266 ; 1137.	Shiral 3-0
173 Bhombaḍī ; DPL. ; भोंबडी	N ; 16-0	1·9 ; 374 ; 78 ; 345.	Anjarle 7-0
174 Bhopaṇ ; DPL. ; भोपण	S ; 20-0	3·6 ; 1651 ; 374 ; 620.	Dabhol 6-0
175 Bhorapavaṇe ; SGR. ; भोरपवणें	E ; 1-4	0·4 ; 23 ; 5 ; 22.	Deorukh 2-0
176 Bhoste ; KD. ; भोस्ते	S ; 1-0	1·3 ; 798 ; 153 ; 446.	Khed 2-0
177 Bhovaḍe ; SGR. ; भोवडे	NE ; 12-0	3·5 ; 862 ; 150 ; 861.	Angaoli 1-0
178 Bhū ; RJP. ; भू	S ; 7-0	2·2 ; 921 ; 200 ; 846.	Local ..
179 Bibavaṇē ; KDL. ; बिबवणें	E ; 3-4	2·1 ; 1081 ; 180 ; 847.	Kudal 3-0
180 Biḍavāḍī ; KVL. ; बिडवाडी	W ; 6-0	6·9 ; 2000 ; 402 ; 1666.	Local ..
181 Bijaghar ; KD. ; बिजघर	E ; 12·0	4·0 ; 1369 ; 256 ; 1100.	Khopi 2·0
182 Biramaṇī ; KD. ; बिरमणी	E ; 22·0	3·0 ; 282 ; 58 ; 237.	Mahalunge 12·0
183 Bivalī ; CLN. ; बिवली	W ; 8·0	1·2 ; 295 ; 62 ; 262 ;	Local ...
184 Boḍade ; SWT. ; बोडदे	NE ; 33·0	2·0 ; 258 ; 50 ; 258.	Bhedshi 3·0
185 Boṇḍye ; RTN. ; बोंडये	E ; 27·0	0·6 ; 440 ; 105 ; 422.	Malgund 10·0
186 Boṇḍye ; SGR. ; बोंडये	E ; 9·0	2·7 ; 516 ; 94 ; 516.	Sakharpa 54·0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand: Distance. Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	78-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	11-0	.. Ratnagiri	2-0 12-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr.).; Cs (fmg., th).; Shimga Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 2tl.
Mumbra	100-0	Mhapral	Fri.	10-0	.... Mhapral	 24-0	w.	Sl (pr.).; Cs.; 5 tl.
Karad	70-0		....		Chiplun	10-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Chaitravali Fr. in Ct. Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 4 tl.
Karad	119-0	Anjarle	..	7-0	Harnai Harnai	5-0 12-0	rv.	tl.
Karad	122-0	Dabhol	..	6-0	Dabhol Dabhol	4-0 9-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr.).; 4 tl.; mq.; 2dg.;
Kolhapur	61-0	Deorukh	Sun.	2-0	....	1-4	w.	
Karad	90-0	Khed	..	2-0	Khed	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; G. pyt.; tl.; mq.; dg.; dh.
Kolhapur	51-0	Sakharpa	Sat.	5-0	Sakharpa	2-4	w.; n.	2 Sl (2pr) 1; Mgh. Vad. 12 (Vadyeshwar).; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	90-0	Rajapur	Wed.	7-0	Rajapur Musakaji	7-0 10-0	w.; cl. t.	2 Sl (1 pr. 1 m).; pyt.; Cs.; 4 tl.; lib.
Belgaum	73-0	Kudal	Wed.	3-0	Local Vengurla	.. 15-0	w.	Sl (pr.).; pyt.; Shri Devi Bhawani Fr. Kt. Vad. 5.; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	67-0	Kankavli	Tue.	7-0	Kankavli Deogad	8-0 52-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Datta Jayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.; 11tl.
Karad	97-0	Khed	..	10-0	Khopi	2-0	w.; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; 4tl.
Karad	102-0	Khed	..	25-0	Khed	22-0	w.; pit.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Karad	70-0		....		Chiplun	10-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr.).; 3tl.
Belgaum	84-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	3-0	Bhedshi Vengurla	3-0 48-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	112-0	Phungus	Tue.	6-0	.. Tivari	7-0 9-0	t.; Cl.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	54-0	Sakharpa	Sat.	4-0	Sangameshwar	9-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office : Distance.	
187 Bondivalī ; DPL. ; बोंडीवली.	N ;	5-4	2·8 ;	518 ;	113 ;	458.	Camp-Dapoli	6-0
188 Bordave ; KVL. ; बोर्डवे.	S ;	6 0	2·7 ;	1476 ;	304 ;	1391.	Vasargaon	1-0
189 Boragāṅv ; CLN. ; बोरगांव.	E ;	16 0	3·8 ;	1066 ;	196 ;	853.	Chiveli	2-0
190 Boraghar ; DPL. ; बोरघर,	E ;	4-0	1·1 ;	157 ;	30 ;	157.	Camp-Dapoli	4-0
191 Boraghar ; MDG. ; बोरघर.	SE ;	2-0	1·7 ;	410 ;	85 ;	377.	Mandangad	3-0
192 Boraghar ; KD. ; बोरघर.	N ;	8-4	1·5 ;	563 ;	108 ;	548.	Khavati	4-0
193 Boraj ; KD. ; बोरज ..	S ;	6-0	2·0 ;	564 ;	103 ;	498.	Shiv Bk.	3-0
194 Borakhat ; MDG. ; बोरखत.	W ;	14-0	0·9 ;	247 ;	72 ;	247.	Bankot	6-0
195 Borathaḍe ; LNJ. ; बोरथडे.	S ;	6-0	1·4 ;	404 ;	85 ;	395.	Vaked	2-0
196 Borasūt ; SGR. ; बोरसूत.	NE ;	12-0	1·4 ;	543 ;	105 ;	507.	Kosumb	5-0
197 Borivalī ; LNJ. ; बोरिवली.	NE ;	11-0	1·4 ;	438 ;	84 ;	422.	Sakharpa	4-0
198 Borivalī ; DPL. ; बोरिवली.	SW ;	20-0	1·6 ;	437 ;	101 ;	109.	Kolthare	2-0
199 Budhavaḷe ; MVN. ; बुधवळे.	NE ;	21-0	3·5 ;	878 ;	166 ;	693.	Bidwadi	8-0
200 Burambāvaḍe ; DGD. ; बुरंबावडे.	SW ;	31-0	2·2 ;	710 ;	10 ;	702.	Talere	4-0
201 Burebāḍ ; SGR. ; बुरेबाड.	W ;	25-0	2·2 ;	2457 ;	443 ;	1714.	Makhjan	2-0
202 Burī ; MDG. ; बुरी ..	N ;	6-0	1·0 ;	126 ;	34 ;	127.	Mandangad	5-0
203 Buroṇḍi ; DPL. ; बुरोंडी.	SW ;	7-0	7·0 ;	3880 ;	848 ;	760.	Local	...

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance. / Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad 105-0	Camp-Dapoli .. 6-0	Dapoli 5-4 Harnai 14-0	w.; rv.	SI (pr).; tl.; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.
Kolhapur 65-0	Kankavli Tue. 5-0	Kankavli 6-0 Malvan 25-0	w.	SI (pr).; pyt.; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Vad. 1.; 5 tl.; M; 2mq.
Karad 74-0	....	Chiplun 14-0	w.	2 SI (2 pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 5 tl.; M.; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.;
Karad 103-0	Camp-Dapoli .. 4-0	Dapoli 9-0 Harnai 11-0	rv.	3 tl.
Mumbra 120-0	Mhapral Fri. 13-0	Dapoli 21-0 Mhapral 13-0	w.; rv.	tl.
Satara Rd. 60-0	Khed .. 5-0	Local	w.	SI (pr).; 4 tl.
Karad 70-0	Khed .. 6-0	Local	w.;	SI (pr). tl.
Mumbra 108-0	Panderi Thu. 9-0	Dasgaon 14-0 Bankot 8-0	w.	SI (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur 88-0	Lanje Tue. 8-0	Vaked 2-0 Ratnagiri 35-0	w.; Str.	SI (pr).; 2 tl.
Kolhapur 68-0	Sangameshwar. Wed. 9-0	Kosumb 5-0	w.	SI (pr).; 2 tl.
Kolhapur 57-0	Sakharpa Sat. 4-0	.... 0-7 Ratangiri 28-0	w.; Spr. rv.	SI (pr).; tl.
Karad 118-0	Kolthare .. 2-0	Kolthare 3-0 Dabhol 6-0	w.	SI (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur 74-0	Kankavli Tue. 14-0	Nirom 3-0 Achare 11-0	w.; n.	2 SI (2 pr). 7 tl.
Kolhapur 70-0	Talere Mon. 4-0	Vijaydurg 27-0	w.; t	SI (pr). ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur 86-0	Makhjan Sat. 2-0	Local ..	w.	2 SI (2 pr).; Cs.; Mg. Vad. 13. (Mahashivratra).; 5 tl.; dh.; lib. dp.; Old temple of Arnneshwar.
Mumbra 103-0	Mh pral Fri. 5-0	Mahad 18-0 Mhapral 5-0	w	SI (pr).; Cs (mp). Hanuman Jayanti Fr Ct. Sud. 15.; 2 tl., Shimga Phg. Sud. 1 to 5
Karad 108-0	Local	Karajgaon 2-0 Harnai 5-0	w	4 SI (4 pr).; pyt.; Shri Durga Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9—; 4 tl.; M. 3 mq.; dh., lib.; dp.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
204 Cākāḷe ; KD. ; चाकाळे. ;	N ; 2-0	1·7 ; 498 ; 98 ; 452.	Khed 2·0
205 Cāndivaṇẽ ; DPL. ; चांदिवणें.	NW ; 12-0	0·9 ; 179 ; 41 ; 172.	Anjarle 6·0
206 Cāndivaṇẽ ; SGR. ; चांदिवणे.	W ; 13-0	0·9 ; 235 ; 40 ; 180.	Wandri 5·0
207 Cāndor ; RTN. ; चांदोर.	E ; 16-0	6·8 ; 1126 ; 240 ; 1083.	Pawas 3·0
208 Cāndośī ; DGD. ; चांदोशी.	E ; 11-4	2·8 ; 628 ; 140 ; 542.	Tale Bazar 1·0
209 Cāpheḍ ; DGD. ; चाफेड.	E ; 23-0	2·0 ; 655 ; 122 ; 600.	Koloshi 3·0
210 Cāpherī ; RTN. ; चाफेरी.	N ; 34-0	3·5 ; 668 ; 162 ; 518.	Saitavade 4·0
211 Cāphelī ; KDL. ; चाफेली.	E ; 23-0	2·7 ; 164 ; 40 ; 163.	Mangaon 5·0
212 Cāpheṭ ; LNJ. ; चाफेट.	NW ; 11-4	0·6 ; 232 ; 41 ; 232.	Ibhrampattan 4·0
213 Cāphevalī ; SGR. ; चाफेवली.	S ; 10-0	4·7 ; 944 ; 179 ; 927.	Devle 2
214 Carāṭhe ; SWT. ; चराठे.	E-12 ; ...	4·1 ; 1377 ; 279 ; 537	Local ...
215 Caravelī ; RTN. ; चरवेली.	E ; 12-0	2·4 ; 677 ; 127 ; 622.	Pali 3·0
216 Cāṭāv ; KD. ; चाटाव..	SW ; 15-0	1·0 ; 354 ; 71 ; 321.	Mahalunge 6·0
217 Cauke ; RJP. ; चौके..	S ; 14-0	1·1 ; 247 ; 56 ; 247.	Nanar 6·0
218 Caukuḷ ; SWT. ; चौकुळ	SW ; 24-6	35·4 ; 2801 ; 547 ; 2618.	Amboli 6·0
219 Cave ; RTN. ; चवे ..	SW ; 25-0	3·0 ; 835 ; 160 ; 688.	Malgund 10·0
220 Cavhāṇavāḍī ; RJP. ; चव्हाणवाडी.	S ; 10-4	0·3 ; 296 ; 60 ; 39.	Anasure 5·0
221 Cendavaṇ ; KDL. ; चेंदवण.	W ; 9-0	2·7 ; 2017 ; 329 ; 1472.	Local ...

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities;	Institutions and other information.
Karad	83-0	Khed	...	2-0	Khed	2-0	w.	cs (pr.).; Cs(th).; 4tl.
Karad	116-0	Anjarle	...	6-0	Harnai Harnai	4-0 10-0	rv.; cl.	Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 to Vad. 5. tl.
Kolhapur	59-0	Navdi	Wed.	12-0	....	5-0	str.	2 tl.
Kolhapur	81-0	Pawas	Daily	3-0	...... Ranpar	6-0 7-0	rv.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Kolhapur	71-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	1-0	Deogad	13-0	w.; Cl.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	72-0	Koloshi	Wed.	4-0	Deogad	22-0	w.	Sl. (pr.).; 6tl.
Kolhapur	9[illegible]-0	Jaigad	Daily	6-0	...... Jaigad	4-0 5-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.
Belgaum	82-0	Mangaon	Tue.	5-0	Local Vengurla	... 28-0	W.; pit.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	88-0	Harcheri	Mon.	4-0	Mauje-Punar. Ratnagiri	2-4 14-0	cl.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	62	Devle	Sun.	2-0	......	5-0	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Belgaum	62-0	Sawantwadi.	Tue.	2-0	Sawantwadi. Vengurla	2-4 18-0	w. : n.	Sl (pr) ; pyt.; 2 Cs (con, mp).; Shri Dev Sateri Fr. Mrg. Vad. 12.; Shri Dev. Pavan i Fr. Mrg. Sud. 12. ; 5 tl. ; M. ; mq. ; dg. ; qh. ; 2 Cch.
Kolhapur	72-0	Harcheri	Mon	4-0	Local Ratnagiri	... 12-0	w. rv.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. tl.
Karad	100-0	Khed	...	13-0	Khed	13-0	rv.	2 tl.
Kolhapur	70-0	Kharepatan.	Tue.	12-0	... .. Musakaji	13-0	cl.	2 tl.
Belgaum	49-0	Amboli	Sun.	6-0	Amboli Vengurla	6-0 41-0	w. ; rv. ; n. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Sateri Fr. Ps. Sud. 2.; 3 tl. ; dh.
Kolhapur	98-0	Waravde	Daily	9-0	..... Jaigad	5-0 12-0	w. ; rv	pyt. ; Cs. ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	84-0	Rajapur	Wed.	10-0	Rajapur Musakaji	10-4 9-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Belgaum	77-0	Valaval	Tue.	2-0	Valaval Vengurla	2-0 24-0	w. t.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (con). ; 4tl. M. ; dh.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation : Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
222 Cikhalagāṅv ; RJP. ; चिखलगांव.	NE ; 11-0	1·8 ; 641 ; 122 ; 627.	Saundal 1-4
223 Cikhalagāṅv ; DPL. ; चिखलगांव.	S ; 12-0	2·8 ; 470 ; 127 ; 243.	Kolthare 4-0
224 Cikhale ; RJP. ; चिखले.	S ; 9-0	1·4 ; 311 ; 73 ; 165.	Satavli 2-0
225 Cikhalī ; GHR. ; चिखली.	E ; 8-2	3·3 ; 922 ; 198 ; 881.	Ginvi 2-4
226 Cikhalī ; SGR. ; चिखली.	N ; 20-0	2·0 ; 1202 ; 223 ; 1089.	Kadavai 3
227 Cincaghar ; MDG. ; चिंचघर.	9-0	1·3 ; 395 ; 92 ; 233.	Kelshi 9-0
228 Ciñcaghar ; KD. ; चिंचघर.	W ; 2-0	3·0 ; 1852 ; 363 ; 1456.	Khed 2-0
229 Ciñcagharī ; CLN. ; चिंचघरी.	S ; 5-0	1·2 ; 584 ; 114 ; 547.	Kanhe 1-0
230 Cincāḷī ; DPL. ; चिंचाळी.	N ; 15-0	0·8 ; 412 ; 82 ; 397.	Palgad 3-0
231 Cincāḷī ; MDG. ; चिंचाळी.	N ; 2-0	0·7 ; 153 ; 31 ; 152.	Mhapral 3-0
232 Ciñcavalī ; KD. ; चिंचवली.	N ; 9-0	3·1 ; 1278 ; 250 ; 1082.	Khavati 3-0
233 Ciñcavalī ; KVL. ; चिंचवली.	N ; 35-0	1·8 ; 549 ; 100 ; 526.	Nadgive 2-0
234 Cincuraṭī ; LNJ. ; चिंचुरटी.	E ; 14-0	2·0 ; 308 ; 70 ; 301.	Shiposhi 5-0
235 Cindar ; MVN. ; चिंदर.	E ; 12-0	8·0 ; 4373 ; 974 ; 3248.	Local ...
236 Cindrāvaḷē ; GHR. ; चिंद्रावळें.	NW ; 22-0	2·9 ; 849 ; 172 ; 542.	Narwan 3-0
237 Cindravalī ; RTN. ; चिंद्रवली.	SE ; 19-0	0·5 ; 835 ; 152 ; 730.	Pali 6-0
238 Cipaḷūṇ ; CLN. ; चिपळूण.	HQ ; ...	10·8 ; 15847 ; 3214 ; 2681.	Local ...

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	53-0	Rajapur	Wed.	8-0	...... Musakaji	... 23-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Karad	120-0	Kolthare	...	4-0	Dabhol Dabhol	3-0 10-0	w. ; str.	tl. ; birth place of Lokamanya Bal Gangadhar Tilak.
Kolhapur	90-0	Beni Bk.	Sat.	4-0	...... Musakaji	... 11-0	w.	tl.
Karad	83-0	......	...	...	Guhagar Dabhol	... 17-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; dh.
Kolhapur	71	Makhjan	Sat.	6	......	4-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 3 tl. ; mq. ; dg. ; lib.
Mumbra	110-0	Panderi	Thu.	18-0	...... Bankot	... 10-0	...	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Karad	83-0	Khed	...	2-0	Chinchaghar Road.	1-4	w. rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (cr). ; 7 tl. ; M. ; mq. ; lib.
Karad	60-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
Karad	129-0	Palgad	...	3-0	Palgad Harnai	4-0 23-0	w. ; rv.	4 tl.
Mumbra	88-0	Mhapral	Fri.	3-0	...... Mhapral	 3-0	w.	tl.
Karad	92-0	Khed	...	7-0	Borghar	2-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (fmg). ; 5 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Kharepatan.	Tue.	3-0	Khapan Vijaydurg	1-0 42-0	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	60-0	Lanje	Tue.	13-0	Shiposhi Ratnagiri	5-0 39-0	w.	Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Local	Fri.	...	Local Achare	. 2-0	w.	10 Sl (10 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (cr). ; Mrg. Sud. 15. to Mrg. Vad. 4. ; 14 tl. ; 2 M. ; Cch.
Karad	91-0	Dabhol	...	27-0	Guhagar Dabhol	19-0 27-0	w. ; cl. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	72-0	Ibhrampattan.	Mon.	3-0	...... Ratnagiri	4-0 19-0	w.	
Karad	60-0	......	...	...	Local	...	w. ; pl.	12 Sl (11 pr, h). ; Mun. ; 6 Cs (2 mp ; i ; 4 mis). ; Phg. Sud. 15 to Phg. Vad. 5. ; Shri Dev. Kal Bhairav Fr. ; 13 tl. ; 2 m. ; 9 mq. ; 6 dg. ; dh. ; gym. ; ch. ; lib. ; Trade centre-trade by road and sea.

Serial No.; Village/Town name; Taluka abbreviation; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles); Population Households; Agricultural Population.				Post Office; Distance.	
239 Cipaļūṇ (Non-Municipal area); CLN.; चिपळूण.	NE;	1-0	1·8; 1518;		299;	686.	Local	...
240 Ciraṇī; KD.; चिरणी ..	E;	15-0	3·2; 964;		192;	716.	Parshuram	3-0
241 Civārī; RJP.; चिवारी	S;	12-0	0·1; 138;		28;	136.	Waghotan	2-0
242 Civelī; CLN.; चिवेली	W;	16-0	4·5; 1669;		345;	670.	Local	...
243 Coḷi; DPL.; चोळी ..	W;	2-0	2·9; 624;		148;	505.	Gimhawane	2-0
244 Coravaṇē; KD.; चोरवणें.	SE;	34-0	0·8; 972;		199;	888.	Dhamnand	6-0
245 Coravaṇē; SGR.; चोरवणें.	S;	14-0	3·9; 1015;		194;	954.	Devle	3-0
246 Cunavare; MVN.; चुनवरे.	NE;	17-0	2·1; 671;		119;	659.	Poip	1-4
247 Dābhaṭ; MDG.; दाभट.	SE;	10-0	0·7; 518;		109;	448.	Latwan	1-0
248 Dābhiḷ; SWT.; दाभीळ.	E;	10-0	3·1; 39;		11;	39.	Tamboli	7-0
249 Dābhīḷ; DPL.; दाभीळ.	SE;	20-0	3·4; 1233;		246;	561.	Local	...
250 Dābhīḷ; KD.; दाभीळ.	S;	9-0	1·6; 441;		85;	409.	Lavel	1-0
251 Dābhīl Ambere; RTN.; दाभीळ आंबेरे.	N;	18-0	3·1; 474;		100;	308.	Gavde Ambere.	5-0
252 Dābhoḷ; DPL.; दाभोळ.	S;	18-0	3·5; 5065;		933;	1034.	Local	...
253 Dābhole; SGR.; दाभोळे.	N;	10-0	8·3; 2740;		513;	1640.	Sakharpa	4-0
254 Dābhoḷe; DGD.; दाभोळे.	E;	7-0	2·1; 1301;		272;	1216.	Local	...
255 Dābhoḷi; VGR.; दाभोळी.	N;	2-6	2·6; 2343;		523;	1515.	Local	...

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Stage	2-0	w.	3 Sl (3 Pr). ; Cs (mP). ; 2 tl. ; M. mq. ; dg. ; lib.
Karad	68-0	Chiplun	...	3-0	Khed	15-0	w.	Sl (Pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	96-0	Khare-Patan.	Mon.	16-0	...... Musakaji	... 16-0	w.	
Karad	74-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	14-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). Cs (mp). Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. 5 tl. 3 mq. dg. dh.
Karad	101-0	Camp-Dapoli.	...	2-0	Karajgaon Harnai	3-0 8-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (Pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Vad. 5. ; tl.
Karad	58-0	Chiplun	...	22-0	Chiplun	22-0	rv.	Sl (Pr). ; Pyt. ; Devichi Jatra Ct. Sud. 15. ; 6 tl.
Kolhapur	60-0	Devle	Sun.	3-0	......	1-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs. ; tl.
Kolhapur	100-0	Masade	Wed.	1-4	Masade Malvan	1-0 15-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 5 tl.
Mumbra	130-0	Mhapral	Fri.	10-0	...... Mhapral	... 20-0	w.	Sl (Pr). ; tl. ; mq. ; gym.
Belgaum	80-0	Banda	Mon.	11-0	Sawant-wadi. Vengurla	12-0 25-0	rv.	Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 7. ; tl.
Karad	122-0	Dabhol	...	4-0	Dabhol Dabhol	5-0 10-0	w. ; cl.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; 3 tl. ; mq. ; 3 dg.
Karad	74-0	Khed	...	8-0	Local	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl. ; dh.
Kolhapur	98-0	Purnagad	Daily	5-0	...... Purnagad	19-0 4-0	w. cl.	Cs.
Karad	115-0	Local	...	..	Local	...	w.	2 Sl (2 Pr). ; Pyt. ; 2 Cs (mP). ; Shri Devi Chandikai Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10. ; 6 tl. ; 5 mq. ; 4 dg. ; 2 dh. ; ch. ; lib. ; 5 dp. ; Masahe mosque of historical importance. Underground temple of Shri Devi Chandikai.
Kolhapur	55-0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kolhapur	76-0	Devle	Sun.	2-0	Local	...	w.	4 Sl (4 Pr). ; Pyt. ; Cs (fmg). ; Psh. Sud. 15 (Bhawani) ; 5 tl. ; M. ; dh.
Belgaum	80-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	4-0	Deogad	7-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (Pr). ; 4 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
256 Dādar ; CLN. ; दादर.	E ; 10-0	0·5 ; 161 ; 31 ; 148.	Kalkaone 2-0
257 Dahāgānv ; MDG. ; दहागांव.	S ; 8-0	0·8 ; 1011 ; 219 ; 770.	Palawni 5-0
258 Dahibānv ; DGD. ; दहिबांव.	SE ; 18-0	4·5 ; 1241 ; 245 ; 995.	Narinare ...
259 Dahimbe ; MDG. ; दहिंबे.	SW 12-0	1·2 ; 90 ; 34 ; 89.	Palawni 2-0
260 Dahivalī Bk. ; CLN. ; दहिवली बुद्रुक.	S 7-0	3·8 ; 1828 ; 367 ; 1691.	Local ...
261 Dahivalī Kh. ; CLN. ; दहिवली खुर्द.	SW ; 13-4	2·4 ; 710 ; 151 ; 62[illegible].	Dahivali Bk. 1-0
262 Dahivalī ; KD. ; दहिवली.	E ; 17-0	2·8 ; 508 ; 109 ; 508.	Tale 7-0
263 Dakhin ; SGR. ; दखिण.	SE ; 14-0	2·6 ; 473 ; 97 ; 473.	Sakharpa 3-0
264 Dalakhan ; DPL. ; दळखण.	N ; 10-0	0·9 ; 149 ; 32 ; 148.	Anjarle 9-0
265 Dalavatanē ; CLN. ; दळवटणे.	NE ; 5-0	3·0 ; 1033 ; 212 ; 955.	Morawane 1-4
266 Dalē-Mauje ; RJP. ; दळें मौजे.	W ; 16-0	0·8 ; 669 ; 146 ; 233.	Jaitapur 1-0
267 Damāme ; DPL. ; दमामे.	EF ; 24-0	2·0 ; 461 ; 105 ; 291.	Ayani 6-0
268 Dāmare ; KVL. ; डामरे.	N ; 8-0	2·8 ; 592 ; 132 ; 550.	Phonda 4-0
269 Dānde Ādob ; RTN. ; दांडे आडोब.	NE : 10-0	1·9 ; 505 ; 111 ; 441.	Katavde 3-0
270 Dāṅgamode ; MVN. ; डांग मोडे.	S ; 13-0	0·8 ; 159 ; 41 ; 64.	Masura 2-0
271 Dānolī ; SWT. ; दाणोली.	E ; 10-4	2·1 ; 268 ; 52 ; 260.	Local ...

Railway St.: Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	...	Vengurla	Mon.	2-0	Vengurla Vengurla	2-0 3-0	w.; n.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; 2 Cs. (Fmg. con).; 5 tl.; M.; lib.; Sateri Fr. Kt. Sud. 1.; Giroba Fr. Kt. Sud. 3.; Bhadrakali Fr. Kt. Sud. 6.; C ch.
Mumbra	105-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	10-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	76-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Dapoli Mhapral	19-0 18-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 4 tl; mq.; ch.; dp.
Mumbra	120-0	Mithbaon	Sat.	2-0	Mithbaon	3-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 4 tl. lib.
Karad	67-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Dapoli Mhapral	21-0 20-0	spr.	tl.
Karad	67-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	7-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; G. pyt.; Cs. (mp).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; after every three years; 4 tl.; dp.
Karad	95-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	7-0	w.; rv.	Sl (m).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 5 tl.
Kolhapur	48-0	Khed	...	12-0	Khed	18-0	w.; spr.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
Karad	121-0	Sakharpa	Sat.	3-0	......	2-0	w.; rv.	tl.
Karad	65-0	Anjarle	...	9-0	Harnai Harnai	6-0 9-0	cl.	tl.
Kolhapur	11-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	5-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 6 tl.; dg.
Karad	112-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	..... Musakaji	... 5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.; dh.
Kolhapur	60-0	Ayani	...	6-0	Degaon Dabhol	5-0 12-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	89-0	Phonda	Mon.	4-0	Phonda Deogad	4-0 36-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.; Dipawali Fr. An. Vad. 15.
Kolhapur	79-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	7-0	...... Ratnagiri	4-0 8-0	w.; cl.	Sl (pr).; tl.
......	...	Masura	Thu.	2-0	Masura Malvan	2-4 15-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Belgaum	53-0	Local	Sun.	...	Local Vengurla	.. 24-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Shri Dev Ling Mauli Fr. Mrg. Vad. 3.; 2 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.	Post Office ; Distance.
272 Dāpoli Maujē ; DPL. ; दापोली मौजे.	NE ; 1-0	1·5 ; 600 ; 118 ; 420.	Camp-Dapoli 1-0
273 Dāpoli Camp ; DPL. ; दापोली कॅम्प .	HQ ; ..	1·0 ; 3958 ; 760 ; 687.	Local ...
274 Dāriste ; KVL. ; दारिस्ते.	SE ; 9-0	3·8 ; 906 ; 168 ; 727.	Gambwade 6-0
275 Dārun ; KVL. ; दारुन.	N ; 16-0	3·7 ; 777 ; 183 ; 716.	Talere 3-0
276 Dasūr ; RJP. ; दसूर.	S ; 10-0	1·8 ; 582 ; 118 ; 278.	Satavli 1-0
277 Ḍāvakhol ; SGR. ; डावखोल.	NW ; 20-0	0·3 ; 362 ; 65 ; 300.	Phungus 4
278 Davali ; DPL. ; डवली.	N ; 18-0	3·4 ; 547 ; 133 ; 514.	Anjarle 8-0
279 Dayāḷ ; KD. ; दयाळ ..	W ; 4-0	3·5 ; 1144 ; 257 ; 1108.	Phurus 1-4
280 Degānv ; DPL. ; देगांव.	SE ; 16-0	2·9 ; 774 ; 176 ; 492.	Dabhol 6-0
281 Ḍegave ; SWT. ; डेगवे.	SE ; 11-0	4·5 ; 1182 ; 231 ; 832.	Banda 2-0
282 Deheṇ ; DPL. ; देहेण.	NW ; 10-0	1·9 ; 465 ; 109 ; 458.	Anjarle 7-0
283 Deṇ ; SGR. ; देण .	SE ; 20	1·9 ; 244 ; 53 ; 228.	Phungus 4
284 Depolī ; DPL. ; देपोली.	S ; 11-0	0·02 ;	Deserted ..
285 Deravaṇ ; CLN. ; डेरवण.	N ; 13-0	4·0 ; 1434 ; 318 ; 1250.	Savarda 2-0
286 Derde ; DPL. ; देर्दे ..	S ; 18-0	0·8 ; 368 ; 79 ; 202.	Onanavse 1-0
287 Deūḍ ; RTN. ; देऊड..	N ; 27-0	5·8 ; 1768 ; 368 ; 1547.	Kespuri 7-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	100-0	Camp-Dapoli	...	1-0	Camp Dapoli. Harnai	1-0 9-0	w.	2 tl.
Karad	99-0	Local	...	...	Local Harnai	... 5-0	w.	4 Sl (2 pr, 2m). ; pyt. ; 2Cs (mp, Con). ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; 9tl. ; 2mq. ; 2dg. ; dh. ; lib. ; 2dp. ; 2Cch.
Kolhapur	69-0	Kankavli	Tue.	10-0	Kankavli Deogad	9-0 40-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl. ; M.
Kolhapur	63-0	Talere	Tue.	3-0	Talere Vijaydurg	4-0 30-0	w. ; o.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Vithoba Saptah : Kt. Sud. 11. Kt. Vad. 11.; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10. ; 6 tl.
Kolhapur	92-0	Beni Bk.	Sat.	3-0	... Musakaji	... 12-0	w. ; t.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 2 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Kolhapur	98	Local	Sun.	...	Kurdunda	7-0	rsr. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
Karad	120-0	Anjarle	...	8-0	Harnai Harnai	5-0 11-0	rv. ;	Sl (pr). ; Shimaga Fr. Phg. Vad. 1. ; 3 tl. ;
Karad	88-0	Khed	...	6-0	Purus	4-0 ..	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; tl.
Karad	123-0	Dabhol	...	6-0	Local Harnai	... 25-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Belgaum	73-0	Banda	Mon.	2-0	Banda Vengurla	2-0 21-0	w., cl.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 2. ; 3 tl.
Karad	119-0	Anjarle	...	7-0	.. Harnai	... 10-0	w. ; cl.	Cl (pr). ; Gokulashtami Fr. Srn. Vad. 8. Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. to Vad 5 ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	79	Phungus	Tues.	4	Kurdunda	...	w. ; rv.	Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl.
Deserted	...	......	...	...	... Dabhol	... 6-0	...	Deserted.
Karad	72-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	12-0	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; 7 tl. ; M. ; dg.
Karad	104-0	Onanavse	...	1-0	Dabhol Dabhol	3-0 5-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Kolhapur	98-0	Warsvde	Daily.	9-0	.. Jaigad	5-0 12-0	cl.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; Gramdevi Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the Taluka/ Peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
288 Devācē Goṭhaṇē ; RJP. ; देवाचें गोठणें.	S ; 10-0	10·4 ; 4295 ; 897 ; 3136	Local ...
289 Devaḍē ; SGR. ; देवडें.	N.E ; 18-0	6·0 ; 1427 ; 253 ; 1370	Sakharpa 9
290 Devadhē ; LNJ. ; देवधें.	N ; 3-0	3·5 ; 1311 ; 226 ; 1122	Lanje 5-0
291 Devagaḍ ; DGD ; देवगड.	N ; 0-½	0·7 ; 2493 ; 448 ; 226	Local ...
292 Devaghar ; KD. ; देवघर.	E ; 11-0	4·4 ; 1441 ; 279 ; 1399	Tale 1-0
293 Devaghar ; SGR. ; देवघर.	S.W ; 5-0	1·2 ; 328 ; 63 ; 316	Ambav 5-0
294 Devaghar ; GHR. ; देवघर.	E ; 12-5	2·8 ; 501 ; 88 ; 584	Ginvi 2-0
295 Devakheraki ; CLN. ; देवखेरकी.	W ; 14-0	2·1 ; 631 ; 133 ; 524	Rampur 2-0
296 Devhārē ; MDG. ; देव्हारें.	W ; 10-0	2·3 ; 622 ; 155 ; 584	Mandangad 10-0
297 Devi Hasoḷ ; RJP. ; देवी हसोळ.	W ; 12-0	4·1 ; 1236 ; 243 ; 1171	Bhimto ; 3-4
298 Devake ; DPL. ; देवके.	S.W ; 7-0	1·55 ; 373 ; 91 ; 226	Burondi 2-0
299 Devale ; SGR. ; देवळे.	S ; 20-0	3·1 ; 1799 ; 359 ; 806	Local ...
300 Devaḷe Gherā Pracitgaḍ ; SGR. ; देवळे घेरा प्रचितगड.	N.E ; 16-0	4·5 ; 438 ; 91 ; 408	Teryen 10-0
301 Devalī MVN ; देवली.	E ; 6-0	7·1 ; 2641 ; 541 ; 1727	Local ...
302 Devarukh ; SGR. ; देवरुख.	H.Q ; ...	7·5 ; 6470 ; 1178 ; 2785	Local ...
303 Devasaḍe ; KD. ; देवसडे.	W ; 3-0	1·3 ; 406 ; 80 ; 406	Pharus 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	98-0	Rajapur	Wed.	5-0	..	...	w. ; cl.	5 Sl (5 pr). ; pyt. ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. Parshuram Jayanti Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3. ; 5 tl. ; mq. ; lib.
Kolhapur	44	Sakharpa	Sat.	9-0	Sakharpa ...	8-0 ...	w. ; rv. rsr.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Phg. Sud. 6. ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	75-0	Lanja	Tue.	5-0	Local Ratnagiri	... 24-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Sidoba Fr. Kt. Vad. 11. ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Local	Fri.	...	Local ...	... ...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (cr). ; 4 tl. ; mq. ; 2 dh. ; ch. ; lib. ; dp. ;— Devgad Fort. Port.
Karad	90-0	Khed	...	10-0	Khed ...	10-0 ...	w. ; rv.	4 Sl (2 pr. 2m). ; Vitthal Rakhumai Fr. Mg. Sud. 11 ; 10 tl.
Kolhapur	67-0	Deorukh	Sun.	6-0	Sangameshwar ...	5-0 ...	n. rsr.	2 tl.
Karad	76-0	......	...	...	Local Dabhol	... 21-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad 13. tl.
Karad	71-0	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	11-0 ...	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl.
Mumbra	120-0	Panderi	Thu.	6-0	Local Hankot	... 10-0	w. ; sPr.	Sl. (pr). ; Pyt. ; Cs. ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	91-0	Beni Bk.	Sat.	2-0	Musakaji	10-0	w. ; sPr.	Sl 2 (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Arya Durga-Devi Fr. Mrg. Vad. 8. ; 3 tl.
Karad	101-0	Burondi	...	2-0	Karajgaon Harnai	1-0 25-0	rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	60-0	Local	Sun.	...	......	3 0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs. ; Mg. Vad. 13 (Mahashivratra). ; 6 tl. ; lib. ; dp.
Kolhapur	75-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	14-0	......	14-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	85-0	Malvan	Fri.	6-0	Chauke Malvan	2-0 5-0	w.	6 Sl (6 pr.) ; pyt. ; Cs (fmg). ; 5 tl. ; M. ; lib. ; Fr. Kt. Vad. 2. ; Kt. Vad. 8. ; Dattajayanti Mrg. Sud. 15.
Kolhapur	61-0	Local	Sun.	...	...	...	w.	7 Sl (6 pr. h). ; 2 Cs. ; Mrg. Sud. 1. ; Mg. Sud. 15. ; tl. ; mq ; dg. ; dh. ; lib. ; 4 dp.
Karad	88-0	Khed	...	3-0	Chinchaghar.	1-0	w.	2 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name : Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the Taluka/ Peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.	Post Office ; Distance.
304 Devasū ; SWT. ; देवसू.	E ; 11-0	2·4 ; 686 ; 150 ; 506	Danbli 4-0
305 Dhākamoḷī ; CLN. ; ढाकमोळी.	W ; 20-0	3·5 ; 907 ; 194 ; 948	Turambav 3-0
306 Dhālavalī ; DGD. ; धालवली.	N.E ; 25-0	2·1 ; 1150 ; 261 ; 516	Karle 1-0
307 Dhāmaṇadevī ; KD. धामणदेवी.	S ; 18-0	3·0 ; 1203 ; 223 ; 826	Local ...
308 Dhamaṇavaṇẽ ; CLN. ; धामणवणें.	E ; 1-4	2·2 ; 679 ; 118 ; 616	Chiplun 2-4
309 Dhāmaṇand ; KD. ; धामणंद.	E ; 26-0	5·0 ; 1546 ; 312 ; 1537	Local ...
310 Dhāmaṇī ; MDG. ; धामणी.	W ; 12-0	1·2 ; 167 ; 48 ; 167	Bankot 7-0
311 Dhāmaṇī ; SGR. ; धामणी.	N ; 14-0	4·0 ; 1182 ; 244 ; 1015	Kadadeai 2-0
312 Dhāmaṇī ; KD. ; धामणी.	N.W ; 7-0	3·0 ; 1065 ; 211 ; 922	Local ...
313 Dhamaṇampe ; RJP. ; धामणंपे.	E ; 14-0	1·6 ; 320 ; 51 ; 306	Saundal 4-0
314 Dhāmaṇasẽ ; RTN. ; धामणसें.	N.E ; 24-0	4·9 ; 1365 ; 302 ; 1221	Nevre 3-0
315 Dhāmāpūr ; MVN. ;- धामापूर.	N.W ; 12-0	10·2 ; 3432 ; 744 ; 2140	Local ...
316 Dhāmāpūr Tarf Devarukh ; SGR. ; धामापूर तर्फ देवरुख.	E ; 7-0	7·6 ; 2946 ; 580 ; 2606	Ambav 3-0
317 Dhāmāpūr Tarf Saṅgamēswar ; SGR ; धामापूर तर्फ संगमेश्वर.	N ; 32-0	1·2 ; 396 ; 74 ; 376	Ambav 5-0
318 Ḍhāṅgar ; MDG. ; डांगर.	N ; 4-0	2·3 ; 214 ; 45 ; 204	Mandangad 10-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	51-0	Danoli	Sun.	1-0	Danoli Vengurla	2-0 24-0	n; w.	Sl (pr).; Mauli Fr., Kt. Vad. 8.; 2tl.; M.; Cch.
Karad	75-0	......			Chiplun	15-0	w; cl.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	70-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	Vijaydurg	31-0	w.	2Sl (2 pr).; Cs. (mp).; Navaratra Fr., An. Sud. 1 to 10.; 6tl.; mq.; dg.; lib.
Karad	88-0	Chiplun	...	6-0	Chiplun	6-0	w; pl.	2Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; tl.; mq.; 2dg.;
Karad	64-0	......			Chiplun	2-0	cl.	Sl. (pr).; Dasara Mahotsav. An. Sud. 1 to Sud. 10.; 4tl.
Karad	73-0	Chiplun	...	15-0	Khopi	12-0	w; rv.	3Sl (3 pr).; Cs (cr).; Maruti Fr., Ct. Sud. 15.; 10tl.; ch.; dp.
Mumbra	119-0	Panderi	Thu.	13-0	...... Bankot	 10-0	pit.	tl.
Kolhapur	75-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	4-0	Local	...	rsc; rv; t.	Sl (pr).; Cs.; 6tl.
Karad	68-0	Khed	...	6-0	Dasturi Naka	2-4	w.	2Sl (2 pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	50-0	Pachal	Sun	3-0	Oni Musakaji	9-0 34-0	w; rv.	Cs.; tl.
Kolhapur	110-0	Malgund	Daily	3-0	Local	...	w; rv.	4Sl (4 pr).; pyt.; 6tl.; dh.; Shri Ratneshwar Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.
Kolhapur	67-0	Deorukh	Sun.	6-0	... .	5-0	w; n.; str.	4Sl (4 pr).; Phg. Vad. 15.; 5tl.; dg.
Kolhapur	88-0	Walaval	Tue.	1-0	Tivari Local Malvan	5-0 ... 11-0	w; t.	3Sl (pr.); pyt.; Cs. (fmg).; Ramnavmi Fr., Ct. Sud. 9.; 7tl.; Hanuman Jayanti Fr., Ct. Sud. 15.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt., Sud. 15.; Reserved Forest.
Kolhapur	60-0	Debrukh	Sun.	5-0	... .	7-0	w.	Sl (pr).
Mumbra	115-0	Mhapral	Fri.	5-0	Mahad Mhapral	22-0 8-0	cl.	Sl (pr).; Cs. (c).; Hanuman Jayanti Fr., Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the Taluka/ Peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
319 Dhānakolī ; DPL. ; धानकोली	N ;	12-0	1·7 ;	283 ;	60 ;	269	Kudawale	5-0
320 Dhāulavallī ; RJP. ; धाउलवल्ली	S ;	10-0	8·6 ;	2661 ;	546 ;	2097	Local	...
321 Dhavaḍẽ ; KD. ; धवडें	E ;	18-0	2·3 ;	390 ;	83 ;	311	Mahalunge	7-0
322 Dhokambaḷẽ ; RTN. ; ढोकंबळें	N ;	10-0	0·5 ;	176 ;	36 ;	135	Nevre	1-0
323 Ḍhokroḷī ; CLN. ; ढोक्रोळी	S ;	10-0	3·0 ;	702 ;	139 ;	679	Nivli	2-4
324 Dhopāve ; GHR. ; धोपावे	N ;	5-6	1·4 ;	1051 ;	247 ;	444	Peth Anjan-wel	4-0
325 Dhopeśvar ; RJP. ; धोपेश्वर	S.W ;	2-0	7·7 ;	1449 ;	272 ;	1196	Rajapur	2-0
326 Dhundare ; LNJ. ; ढुंदरे	N ;	1-0	1·7 ;	75 ;	13 ;	74	Lanje	1-0
327 Dhutroli ; MDG. ; धुत्रोली	W ;	3-0	1·8 ;	419 ;	73 ;	394	Mandangad	3-0
328 Digas ; KDL. ; दिगस	E ;	7-0	6·0 ;	2052 ;	391 ;	1930	Local	...
329 Digavaḷe ; KVL. ; दिगवळे	SE ;	10-0	9·4 ;	2152 ;	435 ;	1425	Natal	2-0
330 Dighi ; MDG. ; दिघी	W ;	23-0	1·4 ;	Deserted		...	......	...
331 Ḍiṅgaṇẽ ; SWT. ; डिंगणें	N ;	10-0	3·8 ;	665 ;	136 ;	503	Banda	3-0
332 Ḍiṅgaṇī ; SGR. ; डिंगणी	NW ;	16-0	5·9 ;	2352 ;	506 ;	1770	Local	...
333 Divāṇ Āḍī ; CLN. ; दिवाण आडी	E ;	15-0	0·9 ;	Deserted		...	...	...
334 Divāṇ Khavaṭī ; KD. ; दिवाण खवटी	N ;	10-0	2·4 ;	549 ;	105 ;	475	Khavati	1-0
335 Ḍoḍavali ; GHR. ; डोडवली	S ;	22-0	2·4 ;	610 ;	126 ;	593	Narwan	6-0

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance. Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad 72-0	Kudawale ... 5-0	Dapoli 8-0 Harnai 16-0	w.	Shimga Fr., Phg. Sud. 15 to Vad. 5. ; tl.
Kolhapur 100-0	Rajapur Wed. 14-0	...... Musakaji 5-0	w. ; cl.	3Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; 2tl. ; lib.
Karad 97-0	Khed ... 14-0	Ambaoli 10-0	w. ; rv.	Sl. (pr). ; 2tl.
Kolhapur 109-0	Ratnagiri Daily 9-0	... 6-0 Ratnagiri 9-0	w.	tl.
Karad ...	......	Chiplun 10-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl.
Karad 90-0	......	Guhagar 10-0 Dabhol 2-0	w. ; rv. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; G. pyt. ; 2tl. ; . mq.
Kolhapur 80-0	Rajapur Wed. 2-0	Rajapur 2-0 Musakaji 16-0	rv.	4Sl (pr). ; G. pyt. ; Shivaratra Fr Mg. Vad. ; 3tl. M. ; mq. 2dg. ; dh. ; 2dp. ; Punyatithi ; Phg. Vad. 1 to 3.
Kolhapur 81-0	Lanje Tue. 1-0	Lanje 1-0 Ratnagiri 27-0	rv. ; w.	tl.
Mumbra 110-0	Mhapral Fr. 7-0	...... Mhapral 10-0	w.	Shri Dev Maruti's Fr., Ct. Vad. 1. ; 3tl.
Belgaum 80-0	Kudal Wed 7-0	Local ... Malvan 30-0	w. ; rv.	3Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs. (mp.). ; 5tl. ; Shri Devi Kalika Fr. Kt. Vad. 4.
Kolhapur 72-0	Kanedi Sun 3-0	Kankavli 10-2 Deogad 54-0	w. ; rv.	4Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; Dahikala Fr., Mrg. Vad. 13. ; 8tl.
......	......	Deserted	...	......
Belgaum 76-0	Banda Mon. 3-0	Banda 4-0 Vengurla 22-0	w. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Ps. 3tl. ; mq.
Kolhapur 78-0	Phungus Tue. 4-0	... 6-0	w. ; rv.	4Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; 5tl. ; mq. ; lib
......	Deserted	....	...	......
Satara Road 60-0	Khed ... 12-0	Khavati 1-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Somai Jatra, Ct. Sud. 15. ; 3tl.
Karad 96-0	......	Hedvi 8-0 Jaigad 14-0	w. ; rv. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.			Post Office : Distance.	
336 Ḍonavali ; CLN. ; डोणवली	W ;	13-0	2·5 ; 1313 ;	269 ;	875.	Bivli	3-0
337 Ḍoṅgar ; RJP. ; डोंगर	S ;	6-0	3·6 ; 1530 ;	338 ;	1227.	Local	...
338 Doṅgarapāl ; SWT. ; डोंगरपाल	N ;	12-0	1·8 ; 240 ;	46 ;	198.	Kalne	4-0
339 Donivaḍē ; RJP. ; दोनिवडें	E ;	4-0	3·9 ; 936 ;	191 ;	747.	Rajapur	4-0
340 Ḍorle ; RT. ; डोर्ले	N ;	19-0	3·2 ; 709 ;	147 ;	507.	Gavde Ambere	6-0
341 Dudhere ; MDG. ; दुधेरे	S ;	6-0	1·5 ; 373 ;	72 ;	218.	Palavni	6-0
342 Ḍugave ; CLN. ; डुगवे	NE ;	16-0	1·8 ; 459 ;	88 ;	433.	Rampur	6-0
343 Ḍugave ; RTN. ; डुगवे	E ;	15-0	0·6 ; 159 ;	34 ;	131.	Ibhrampattan	4-0
344 Dumadev ; DPL. ; दुमदेव	SW ;	14-0	0·3 ; 127 ;	29 ;	89.	Kolthare	3-0
345 Durgavāḍi ; CLN. ; दुर्गवाडी	S ;	22-0	7·8 ; 1071 ;	206 ;	992.	Kutre	5-0
346 Durgavāḍi ; MDG. ; दुर्गवाडी	HQ ;	...	1·3 ; 828 ;	198 ;	277.	Local	...
347 Gaḍanaraḷ ; RTN. ; गडनरळ	N ;	31-0	2·7 ; 549 ;	127 ;	549.	Kespuri	8-0
348 Gālel ; SWT. ; गाळेल	N ;	9-0	4·0 ; 223 ;	43 ;	183.	Kalne	4-0
349 Gānē ; CLN. ; गानें	E ;	12-0	1·2 ; 281 ;	82 ;	278.	Kalkaone	3-0
350 Gāṅgrai ; CLN. ; गांग्रई	W ;	53-0	1·7 ; [illegible] ;	156 ;	511.	Bivli	3-0
351 Gāṅvarāi ; KDL. ; गांवराई	N ;	17-0	3·0 ; 1061 ;	199 ;	903.	Kasal	4-0
352 Gāṅvarāi ; DPL. ; गांवराई	S ;	8-0	1·1 ; 337 ;	77 ;	[illegible]	Dabhol	6-0
353 Gāṅvataḷē ; DPL. ; गांवतळें	SE ;	10-0	1·5 ; 450 ;	81 ;	392.	Wakavli	5-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	...	......			Chiplun	12-0	w.; sPr.	3Sl (3 Pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 4tl.; 2mq.; 2dg.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur	92-0	Rajapur	Wed.	5-0	Rajapur Musakaji	6-0 12-0	w.	3Sl (3 Pr.).; Pyt.; Datta Jayanti. Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.; 7tl.; mq.; dg.; 2lib.
Belgaum	73-0	Banda	Mon.	2-4	Banda Vengurla	3-0 23-0	n.	Sl (Pr).; Shri Dev Mauli Fr.; tl;
Kolhapur	90-0	Rajapur	Wed.	4-0	Rajapur Musakaji	4-0 18-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	98-0	Purnagad	Daily	10-0	... Purnagad	19-0 5-0	w.; cl.	Sl (Pr).; Pyt.; 2Cs.; 3tl.; 1 lib.
Mumbra	135-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Dapoli Mhapral	20-0 18-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; 2tl.
Karad	...	......			Chiplun	14-0	w.; cl.	Sl (Pr).; 4tl.
Kolhapur	100-0	Tonde	Sat.	1-4	... .	6-0	rv.	tl.
Karad	119-0	Kolthare	...	3-0	Kolthare Dabhol	4-0 4-0	rv.	2tl.
Karad	...	......			Chiplun	21-0	w.	2Sl (2 Pr).; 5tl.
Mumbra	110-0	Panderi	Thu	6-0	Dasgaon Mhapral	20-0 10-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; Pyt.; Cs (mP.).; 5tl.; dh.; lib.; dp.; Fort.
Kolhapur	100-0	Saitavade	Sat.	6-0	... Jaigad	3-4 10-0	w.; n.	Sl (Pr).; Pyt.; tl.
Belgaum	73-0	Banda	Mon.	2-4	Banda Vengurla	3-0 20-0	n.	Sl (Pr).; Siddheshwar Fr. Ps.; 2tl.
Karad	60-0	......			Chiplun	12-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; tl.
Karad	...	......			Chiplun	12-0	w.; sPr.	Sl (Pr).; Cs (fmg).; 3tl.; mq.; dg.; dp.;
Kolhapur	72-0	Kasal	Thu.	4-0	Local Malvan	... 18-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; 7tl.
Karad	122-0	Dabhol	...	6-0	Camp-Dapoli. Dabhol	8-0 12-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; tl.
Karad	96-0	Wakavli	...	5-0	Degaon Harnai	4-0 21-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; 6tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name : Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.	Post Office ; Distance.
354 Gaṇeśaguḷe ; RTN. ; गणेशगुळे	S ; 10-0	2·5 ; 1099 ; 199 ; 734.	Pawas 2-0
355 Gauḍavāḍī ; MVN. ; गऊडवाडी	N ; 15-0	4·2 ; 954 ; 236 ; 586.	Achare 2-0
356 Gavāṇe ; DGD. ; गवाणें	SW ; 33-0	2·0 ; 704 ; 139 ; 700.	Phanasgaon 2-0
357 Gavhe ; DPL. ; गव्हें	S ; 2-4	2·6 ; 761 ; 152 ; 585.	Camp-Dapoli 3-0
358 Gāṅvakhaḍi ; RTN. ; गांवखडी	S ; 13-0	6·4 ; 2894 ; 496 ; 1766.	Local ...
359 Gāvaḍe Āmbere ; RTN. ; गावडे आंबेरे	N ; 16-0	2·0 ; 1423 ; 303 ; 667.	Local ...
360 Gavāṇe ; LNJ. ; गवाणें	W ; 4-0	6·7 ; 1589 ; 335 ; 1467.	Lanje 5-0
361 Geḷe ; SWT. ; गेळे	SW ; 23-4	1·0 ; 394 ; 80 ; 393.	Amboli 4-0
362 Ghāṇe Khuṇṭ ; KD. ; घाणे खुंट	S ; 12-0	2·4 ; 629 ; 121 ; 524	Anajani 4-0
363 Gharāḍi ; MDG. ; घराडी	SW ; 7-0	3·3 ; 567 ; 120 ; 558.	Palavni 5-0
364 Ghārāp ; SWT. ; घाराप	E ; 23-4	5·7 ; 227 ; 47 ; 227.	Tamboli 9-0
365 Ghātivaḍe ; SWT. ; घाटीवडे	E ; 36-0	2·6 ; 11 ; 5 ; 11.	Bhedshi 9-0
366 Ghāṭivaḷe ; SGR. ; घाटीवळें	N ; 12-0	3·3 ; 1569 ; 294 ; 1474	Devle 4-0
367 Ghoḍavali ; SGR. ; घोडवली	W ; 12-0	1·9 ; 531 ; 105 ; 387.	Wandri 5-0
368 Ghoṭage ; SWT. ; घोटगे	NE ; 32-0	2·1 ; 705 ; 127 ; 620.	Bhedshi 3-0
369 Gherā Pālagaḍ ; KD. ; घेरा पालगड	SW ; 7-4	3·7 ; 1195 ; 232 ; 1021.	Dhamani 2-0
370 Ghāvanel ; KDL. ; घावनेळ	E ; 8-3	8·4 ; 2214 ; 375 ; 1871.	Local ...

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	93-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	2-0	... Ranpar	1-0 2-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; cs. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 6tl.
Kolhapur	82-0	Achare	Sun.	2-0	Achare Achare	1-0 1-0	w.	4Sl (4 pr). ; Cs (mp). ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 5tl. ; dg. ; dh. ; 8gym. ; 5 lib. ; Cch.
Kolhapur	60-0	Talere	Tue.	5-0	Vijaydurg	16-0	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Gangeshwar Fr. Mrg. Sud. 11. ; 4tl. ; Shri Dev Vithoba Fr. Kt. Vad. 11. ; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ;
Karad	102-0	Camp-Dapoli ...		3-0	...... Harnai	 12-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3tl.
Kolhapur	94-0	Lanje	Tue.	39-0	Ratnagiri Purnagad	13-0 1-4	w.	4Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; 2Cs. ; 12tl. mq. ; dg. ; dh. ; lib.
Kolhapur	98-0	Purnagad	Daily.	4-0	... Purnagad	16-0 2-0	w. ; cl.	2Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs. ; 7tl.
Kolhapur	85-0	Lanje	Tue.	5-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	5-0 24-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3tl. mq.
Belgaum	42-0	Amboli	Sun.	4-0	Amboli Vengurla	4-0 38-0	n. ; rv. ; sPr.	Shimga Fr. Ps. Sud. 15. ; Dasara Fr. An. ; Sud. 10. ; tl.;
Karad	74-0	Chiplun	...	7-0	Chiplun	7-0	rv. ; pit.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl. ; mq. ;
Mumbra	128-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Dapoli Mhapral	22-0 16-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl. ;
Belgaum	65-0	Banda	Mon.	14-0	Banda Vengurla	12-0 27-0	n.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Belgaum	95-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	9-0	Konalkatta Vengurla	6-0 51-0	w.	
Kolhapur	65	Devle	Sun.	4	. ...	1-4	rv. ; w.	2 Sl (2 pr) (h). ; (Vithoba) Fr. ; Krt. Sud. is 2 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Kolhapur	72	Navdi	Wed.	13	......	4-0	str. ; w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Belgaum	95-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	3-0	Banda Vengurla	25-0 42-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Karad	91-0	Khed	...	10-0	Khed	10-4	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 5 tl. ; Fort on a hill.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	7-0	Mangaon Vengurla	3-0 16-0	w.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Rameshwar Fr. Kt. Sud. 6. ; lib.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.			Post Office : Distance.	
371 Gherā Rasālagaḍ ; KD. ; घेरा रसाळगड	E ;	8-0	4·2 ; 713 ;	128 ;	680.	Tale	2-0
372 Gherā Sumāragaḍ ; KD. ; घेरा सुमारगड	E ;	16-0	2·9 ; 130 ;	26 ;	130.	Tale	9-0
373 Ghogare ; KD. ; घोगरे	E ;	17-0	2·2 ; 537 ;	115 ;	530.	Tale	7-0
374 Ghosāḷē ; MDG. ; घोसाळे	SE ;	7-0	2·9 ; 546 ;	132 ;	471.	Mandangad	4-0
375 Ghoṭagē ; KDL. ; घोटगें	NE ;	25-0	6·3 ; 1632 ;	321 ;	1592.	Jambhavde	3-0
376 Ghoṇasarī ; KVL. ; घोणसरी	N ;	15-0	6·0 ; 2208 ;	486 ;	2048.	Local	...
377 Gimavī ; GHR. ; गिमवी	E ;	10-0	4·0 ; 769 ;	154 ;	685.	Local	...
378 Gimhavaṇē ; DPL. ; गिम्हवणें	W ;	2-0	3·1 ; 1733 ;	356 ;	403.	Local	...
379 Giragāṅv ; KDL. ; गिरगांव	SE ;	9-0	3·8 ; 282 ;	48 ;	236.	Digas	6-0
380 Giroḍē ; SWT. ; गिरोडें	N ;	25-0	2·1 ; 105 ;	25 ;	101.	Dodamarga	2·4
381 Girye ; DGD. ; गिर्ये	N ;	14-0	10·3 ; 3577 ;	720 ;	2819.	Local	...
382 Goḷap ; RTN. ; गोळप	S ;	8-0	9·8 ; 2750 ;	560 ;	1654.	Local	...
383 Goḷavalī ; SGR. ; गोळवली	N ;	16-0	4·1 ; 1151 ;	219 ;	1048.	Sangameshwar	4
384 Goḷavaṇ ; MVN. ; गोळवण	NE ;	19-0	6·2 ; 1502 ;	358 ;	1094.	Local	...
385 Goḷavaśī ; LNJ. ; गोळवशी	SW ;	8-0	2·6 ; 786 ;	157 ;	557.	Satavli	5-0
386 Goḷīl ; DPL. ; गोळील	S ;	8-0	0·4 ; ...	...	...	......	...

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	96-0	Khed	...	10-0	Khed	12-0	w.	2 Sl (pr. m). ; Zolai Devi's Fr. Ct. Vad. 5. ; 7 tl. ; Historical Fort.
Karad	97-0	Khed	...	12-0	Khed	12-0	w.	2 tl. ; Remains of Sumargad Fort.
Karad	95-0	Khed	...	14-0	Khed	19-0	spr. ; pit.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl. ; In this place only sweet oil is used for lighting purposes.
Mumbra	120-0	Panderi	Thu.	4-0	...... / Mhapral	... / 12-0	n.	Sl (pr). ; Hanuman Jayanti. Fr. Ct Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	70-0	Loral	Sat.	...	Nirukhe / Malvan	8-0 / 40-0	w.	Sl (pr) ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Khalnath. Fr. Mrg. Vad. 9. ; 2 tl. ; dh.
Kolhapur	54-0	Phonda	Mon.	3-0	Phonda / Deogad	3-0 / 36-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Shivgad ; Fort Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud 15. ; 6 tl. ; 2 dh. ; 2 lib. ; 2 dp.
Karad	77-0	......	...	...	Guhagar / Dabhol	10-0 / 20-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs. (fmg). ; Vaganai Fr. Phg. Sud. 9. ; 2 tl.
Karad	101-0	Camp-Dapoli.	...	2-0	Dapoli / Harnai	2-0 / 8 0	w. ; t. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Cs (mp). ; Shri Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; 8 tl. ; dh.
Belgaum	81-0	Kudal	Wed.	11-0	Nirukhe / Malvan	4-0 / 34-0	w. ; n.	Sl (pr)., Shri Dev Linga Fr. Mrg. Sud. 3. ; 2 tl.
Belgaum	90-0	Banda	Mon.	17-4	Dodamarga / Vengurla	3-0 / 36-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	104-0	Talere	Tue.	28-0	Vijaydurg	6-0	w.	6 Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Chavadeshwari Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 15. ; 9 tl. ; 2 mq. ; 4 dg. ; dh. ; 4 lib.
Kolhapur	89-0	Pawas	Daily	2-0	Pawas / Ranpar	2-0 / 2-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 5 tl. ; mq. ; 2 dg. ; gym.
Kolhapur	75	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	4	......	1-0	w. ; rsr.	5 tl
Kolhapur	65-0	Viran	Wed.	3-0	Masade / Malvan	3-0 / 14-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr)., 5 tl. ; dh.
Kolhapur	57-0	Beni Bk.	Sat.	7-0	Lanje / Purnagad	8-0 / 17-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
—					Dabhol	12-0		Deserted.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ Peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural Population.	Post Office ; Distance.
387 Gonavali ; GHR. ; गोनवली	S ; 9-0	0·7 ; 339 ; 74 ; 334.	Palshet 4-0
388 Gondhale ; CLN. ; गोंधळे	W ; 14-0	1·8 ; 988 ; 181 ; 818.	Chiveli 2-0
389 Goṭe ; MDG. ; गोटे	W ; 15-0	1·6 ; 363 ; 82 ; 354.	Bankot 8-0
390 Goṭhaṇe ; MVN. ; गोठणे	E ; 22-0	3·3 ; 1050 ; 190 ; 977.	Ramgad 1-0
391 Goṭhaṇe ; SGR. ; गोठणे	E ; 15-0	9·0 ; 402 ; 80 ; 400.	Deorukh 3-0
392 Goṭhaṇe Donivaḍe ; RJP. ; गोठणे दोनिवडे	E ; 6-0	6·0 ; 1932 ; 329 ; 1869.	Saundal 5-0
393 Goṭhaṇe Vikhāre ; RJP. ; गोठणे विखारे	S ; 4-0	2·3 ; 471 ; 97 ; 416.	Dongar 1-0
394 Goṭhivare ; RJP. ; गोठीवरे	SW ; 15-0	4·5 ; 396 ; 82 ; 301.	Ansure 4-0
395 Goṭhos ; KDL. ; गोठोस	E ; 19-0	5·2 ; 410 ; 100 ; 393.	Mangaon 6-0
396 Goval ; MDG. ; गोवळ	SE ; 11-0	0·3 ; 17 ; 3 ; 17 ;	Latwan 2-0
397 Goval ; RJP. ; गोवळ . .	S ; 7-0	4·5 ; 1428 ; 286 ; 1110.	Vilye 1-0
398 Goval ; DGD. ; गोवळ	NE ; 18-0	6·3 ; 888 ; 189 ; 882.	Phanasgaon 2-0
399 Govele ; MDG. ; गोवेले	N ; 5-0	0·3 ; 68 ; 31 ; 64.	Mandangad 5-0
400 Govil ; LNJ. ; गोविळ	E ; 10-0	4·3 ; 1528 ; 228 ; 1376.	Shiposhi 4-0
401 Guḍhaghe ; DPL. गुढघे	S ; 19-0	1·6 ; 636 ; 146 ; 200.	Onanavse 3-0
402 Guḍeghar ; MDG. ; गुडेघर	W ; 14-0	1·3 ; 282 ; 65 ; 180.	Bankot 5-0
403 Guḍhe ; CLN. ; गुढे . .	NE ; 17-0	5·2 ; 1441 ; 280 ; 1357.	Rampur 6-0

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar : Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	86-0	......	...	...	Guhagar Palshet	8-0 4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	12-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Hanuman Jayanti, Ct. Sud. 15. Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl. ; dh.
Mumbra	107-0	Panderi	Thu.	8-0	Dasgaon Bankot	13-0 8-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	68-0	Ramgad	Mon.	1-0	Ramgad Achare	1-0 17-0	w. ; rv. ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Cs (fmg). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	60-0	Deorukh	Sun.	3-0	... .	15-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	97-0	Rajapur	Wed.	6-0	...... Musakaji	 21-0	w. ; cl.	3Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; 4tl. M. ; Shimga Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.
Kolhapur	93-0	Rajapur	Wed.	6-0	Hativale Musakaji	2-0 14-0	w. ; cl.	tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	10-0	Stage Musakaji	8-0 12-0	cl.	Sl (pr). ; M. 2tl. ;
Belgaum	78-0	Mangaon	Tue.	6-0	Vados Vengurla	2-0 22-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Bhavai Fr. Kt. Sud. 11. ; 5tl.
Mumbra	130-0	Mhapral	Fri.	10-0	...... Mhapral	 24-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	85-0	Rajapur	Wed.	5-0	Rajapur Musakaji	7-0 11-0	w. ; n.	2Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Ps. Sud. 15. ; 6tl.
Kolhapur	71-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	11-0	Vijaydurg	26-0	w.	2Sl (2 pr). ; 5tl.
Mumbra	110-0	Mhapral	Fri.	5-0	...... Mhapral	 6-0	cl.	Sl (pr). ; Cs (mp). ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; tl.
Kolhapur	84-0	Shiposhi	Sat.	4-0	Local Ratnagiri	... 32-0	w.	Sl (m). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 6tl.
Karad	117-0	Onanavse	...	3-0	Dabhol Dabhol	4-0 6-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2tl.
Mumbra	103-0	Panderi	Thu.	16-0	Dasgaon Bankot	26-0 6-0	w. ; rv.	tl.
Karad	...	......			Chiplun	15-0	w. ; cl.	3Sl (3pr). ; pyt. ; 5tl.

Serial No. : Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office : Distance.
404 Gūhāgar ; GHR. ; गुहागर	HQ ; ...	4·3 ; 5031 ; 956 ; 1983.	Local ...
405 Guladuvē ; SWT. ; गुळदुवें	S ; 13–0	1·4 ; 577 ; 102 ; 536.	Aronda 2–0
406 Gulavaṇē ; CLN. ; गुळवणें	W ; 25–0	1·5 ; 531 ; 101 ; 471.	Nivli 5–0
407 Guṇade ; KD. ; गुणदे	E ; 15·0	6·1 ; 1761 ; 326 ; 1687.	Lavel 2–0
408 Guñjavanē ; RJP. ; गुंजवणे	E ; 10–0	0·8 ; 205 ; 32 ; 197.	Korle 15–0
409 Haḍakaṇī ; CLNP. ; हडकणी	N ; 14–0	2·0 ; 560 ; 114 ; 522.	Nandgaon 3–0
410 Haḍapiḍ ; DGD. ; हडपीड	E ; 19·0	3·1 ; 793 ; 170 ; 419.	Koloshi 1–0
411 Haḍī ; MVN. ; हडी ..	S ; 8–0	3·4 ; 2789 ; 627 ; 867.	Kandalgaon 5–0
412 Haḷaval ; KVL. ; हळवल	SE ; 1–0	3·0 ; 1437 ; 286 ; 1107.	Kankavli 3–0
413 Harce ; LNJ. ; हर्चे ..	W ; 18–0	5·5 ; 1439 ; 320 ; 996.	Adivare 5–0
414 Haracerī ; RTN. ; हरचेरी	SE ; 12–0	7·6 ; 2922 ; 574 ; 2342.	Local ...
415 Hardakhalē ; LNJ. ; हर्दखलें	E ; 13–0	7·8 ; 1358 ; 255 ; 1337.	Bhambed 9–0
416 Harakul Bk. ; KVL. ; हरकुळ बुद्रुक	E ; 5–0	6·5 ; 3520 ; 661 ; 2714.	Local ...
417 Harakūḷ Kh. ; KVL. ; हरकुळ खुर्द	E ; 9-0	10·5 ; 3187 ; 622 ; 2915.	Local ...
418 Harṇai ; DPL. ; हर्णे ..	NW ; 9–0	2·9 ; 6889 ; 1376 ; 675.	Local ...

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance. / Port: Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad 87-0	......	Local ... Dabhol 9-0	w.; pl.	4Sl (3 pr. hi).; pyt.; 2s (mp. cr.): Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13.; 19tl.; mq.; dh.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.; Vyaghrambari Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1.; Remains of a mansion built in Peshwa Period.
Belgaum 75-0				
Karad ...	Aronda Sat. 2-0	Sawantwadi. 14-0 Vengurla 15-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 6tl.
Karad 60-0	......	Chiplun 16-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur 88-0	Khed ... 8-0	Lavel 3-0	w.	2Sl (2 pr).; pyt.: Shri Dev Kedar Fr. Ct. Sud. 13,; 11tl. M.;
Karad ...	Kharepatan Tue. 4-0	...... Musakaji 28-0	w.; o.	Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15,; tl.
Kolhapur 61-0	......	Chiplun 14-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur 97-0	Koloshi Wed. 1-0	Deogad 19-0	w.	Sl(pr).; 6tl.
Kolhapur 63-0	Local Sat. ...	Local ... Malvan 8-0	w.	6Sl (5pr m).; pyt.; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 3tl. mq.; dh.; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Sud. 10.
Kolhapur 101-0	Kankavli Tue. 3-0	Kankavli 3-0 Deogad 48-0	w; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 7tl. M.
Kolhapur 90-0	Beni Budruk Sun. 5-0	Lanja 18-00 Purnagad 8-0	w.; n.	3Sl (3 pr).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 5tl.; ch.
Kolhapur 90-0	Local Mon. ...	Local .. Ranpar 10-0	w.; cl.;	6Sl (6 pr).; pyt.; Cs.; 8tl.; 3mq.; dg.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur 65-0	Lanje Tue. 10-0	Bhambed 9-0 Ratnagiri 40-0	w.	Sl (pr); Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 2tl.
Kolhapur 60-0	Kankavli Tue. 4-0	Kankavli 5-0 Deogad 48-0	w.; rv.	4Sl (4 pr).; pyt.; 4 tl. M.; 3mq.; dg.; gym.; 2lib.; dp..
Karad 106-0	Phonda Mon. 4-0	Phondaghat. 0-4 Deogad 34-0	w.	5Sl (4pr. m.).; pyt.; Cs (con).; 6tl. M.; lib.; dp.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
419 Harapunde ; SGR. ; हरपुंडे	EE ;	2·4	2·7 ; 920 ;		179 ;	858.	Deorukh	2·0
420 Haral ; RJP. ; हरळ ..	SE ;	19·0	2·7 ; 595 ;		117 ;	569.	Rajapur	10·0
421 Hardi ; RJP. ; हर्डी ..	N ;	1·0	1·2 ; 525 ;		70 ;	502.	Rajapur	2·0
422 Hasol Tarf Saundal ; RJP. ; हसोळ तर्फ सौंदळ	E ;	10·0	2·9 ; 1040 ;		187 ;	972.	Rajapur	10·0
423 Hasol ; LNJ. ; हसोळ	E ;	8·0	2·3 ; 440 ;		98 ;	404.	Shiposhi	4·0
424 Hātade ; RJP. ; हातदे	SE ;	26·0	5·1 ; 690 ;		117 ;	655.	Kharepatan	12·0
425 Hātakhambe ; RTN. ; हातखंबे	E ;	9·0	8·1 ; 2812 ;		514 ;	2319.	Local	...
426 Hātivale ; RJP. ; हातिवले	SE ;	5·0	2·5 ; 484 ;		104 ;	381.	Korle	10·0
427 Hāterī ; KDL. ; हातेरी	NE ;	5·2	...	...	...	...	Deserted.	...
428 Hātis ; RTN. ; हातीस	E ;	12·0	0·1 ; 209 ;		38 ;	151.	Someshwar	7·0
429 Hātip ; DPL. ; हातीप	E ;	12·0	1·9 ; 563 ;		114 ;	528.	Palgad	3·0
430 Hātiv ; SGR. ; हातीव	E ;	2·0	2·9 ; 1261 ;		241 ;	1166.	Deorukh	3·0
431 Hedalī ; KD. ; हेदली	E ;	6·0	2·3 ; 881 ;		181 ;	789.	Khed	5·0
432 Hedalī ; SGR. ; हेदली	N ;	19·0	1·4 ; 313 ;		55 ;	310.	Nayri	5·0
433 Hedavī ; GHR. ; हेदवी	S ;	16·0	1·9 ; 1373 ;		332 ;	574.	Local	...

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance. Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 63-0	Local	Local ... Local ...	w.	3Sl (3pr).; 9tl.; M.; 7mq.; 3dg.; dh.; lib.; Cch.; A fort in the sea.; A fort on land.
Kolhapur 58-0	Deorukh Sun. 2-0	... 2-4	w.	2Sl (pr, m).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 2tl.
......	Kharepatan Tue. 6-0	Kharepatan. 6-0 Musakaji 35-0	c.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur 82-0	Rajapur Wed. 2-0	Rajapur 2-0 Musakaji 18-0	cl.; rv.	Sl (pr).
Kolhapur 98-0	Rajapur Wed. 10-0	Panhale 4-0 Musakaji 25-0	w.	Sl. (pr.). pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 2tl.; mq.; lib.
Kolhapur 86-0	Lanje Tue. 6-0	Lanje 8-0 Ratnagiri 34-0	w.	Sl (pr.).; Shimga, Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 2tl.
Kolhapur 46-0	Kharepatan Wed. 12-0	Kharepatan. 12-0 Musakaji 39-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14., 2 tl.
Kolhapur 72-0	Harcheri Mon 5 0	Local ... Ratnagiri 9-0	W.; rv. n.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Cs.; Shimga. Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 6tl.; dg.; dh.; gym.; lib.
Kolhapur 90-0	Rajapur Wed. 5-0	Rajapur 5-0 Musakaji 20-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Deserted ...	Deserted	Deserted		Deserted.
Kolhapur 88-0	Tonde Sun. 1-0	... 12-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Mg.; Sud. 15.; tl.; mq.
Karad 119-0	Palgad ... 3-0	Palgad 4-0 Harnai 19-0	w.; rv	Sl (pr); Gavdevi Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.
Kolhapur 60-0	Deorukh Sun. 3-0	Deorukh 2-0	w.; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 3 tl.; mq.
Karad 80-0	Khed ... 5-0	Local	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.
Kolhapur 77-0	Sangameshwar. Wed. 8-0	Kasaba Sangameshwar. 5-0 ...	rv.	Sl (pr).; M.
Karad 100-0	......	Guhagar 13-0 Borya 3-0	w.; rv.	2 Sl (pr. m).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 5tl.; dh.; lib.; 2dp.; Temple having a Shrine of God Ganesha with ten hands.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office : Distance.
434 Hedul ; MVN. ; हेदुळ	NE ; 23·0	1·6 ; 1378 ; 429 ; 1202.	Kalse 3-0
435 Hevāle ; SWT. ; हेवाळे	E ; 36·0	3·7 ; 226 ; 50 ; 221.	Bhedshi 8-0
436 Hindale ; DGD. ; हिंदळे	S ; 24·0	6·0 ; 2670 ; 555 ; 1364.	Local ...
437 Hirlok ; KDL. ; हिर्लोक	E ; 9·0	2·3 ; 809 ; 144 ; 657.	Digas 5-0
438 Hivāle ; MVN. ; हिवाळे	E ; 18·0	5·0 ; 1366 ; 281 ; 1016.	Poip 6-0
439 Hoḍakhāḍ ; KD. ; होडखाड	S ; 23·0	2·5 ; 663 ; 138 ; 623.	Aini 2-0
440 Hoḍāvaḍe ; VGR. ; होडावडे	E ; 8·0	4·3 ; 2238 ; 462 ; 1621.	Local ..
441 Holī Mauje ; RJP. ; होळी मौजे	W ; 17·0	1·1 ; 419 ; 95 ; 277.	Jaitapur 2-0
442 Humarama'ā ; KDL. ; हुमरमळा	N ; 6·0	1·6 ; 883 ; 171 ; 663.	Vetal-Bamberde 2-0
443 Humbarat ; KVL. ; हुंबरट	N ; 3·0	3·0 ; 898 ; 178 ; 702.	Tarandale 4-0
444 Humbari ; KD. ; हुंबरी	E ; 12·0	2·5 ; 640 ; 127 ; 435.	Mahalunge 3·0
445 Hurse ; RJP. ; हुर्से ..	W ; 18·0	0·3 ; 150 ; 37 ; 78.	Ansure 4-0
446 Idavaṭī ; LNJ. ; इदवटी	SW ; 8·0	1·9 ; 846 ; 165 ; 799.	Satavli 5-4
447 Ilaṇe ; DPL. ; इळणे ..	NW ; 18·0	1·3 ; 376 ; 87 ; 274.	Ade 2-4
448 Ilaye ; DGD. ; इळये ..	SE ; 7·0	5·8 ; 1585 ; 332 ; 1404.	Dabhol 3-0
449 Insulī ; SWT. ; इन्सुली	S ; 4·0	8·1 ; 3279 ; 710 ; 2619.	Local ..
450 Isāpūr ; GHR. ; इसापूर	NE ; 16·0	2·0 , 630 ; 134 ; 366.	Pewe 4-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	73-0	Sukalwad	Sun.	3-4	Kasal Malvan	3-0 24-0	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Dabhikala Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; 5tl. ; lib.
Belgaum	30-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	8-0	Konalkatta Vengurla	6-0 49-0	t.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Kolhapur	94-0	Mithbaon	Sat.	1-0	Mithbaon	2-4	w. ; cl. n.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (fmg). ; Shri Dev Kalbhairav Fr. Mr. Sud. 1. ; 4tl. ; dh. ; lib. ; dp.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	10-0	Bombarde T. Kalsuli. Malvan	5-0 28-0	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Ling Fr. Mrg. Sud. 7. ; 2tl.
Kolhapur	100-0	Masade	Wed.	6-0	Masade Malvan	1-4 13-0	rv.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10, Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 5tl.
Karad	80-0	Chiplun	...	10-0	Chiplun	15-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Holi Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2tl. ; M. ; mq. ; 2dg.
Belgaum	78-0	Local	Tue.	...	Vengurla Vengurla	6-0 8-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs. (mp). ; 3tl. M. ; lib. ; 3 dp. ; ch.
Kolhapur	102-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	...... Musakaji	5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl.
Belgaum	80-0	Sukalwadi	Sat.	4-0	Local Malvan	... 25-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (con). ; Shri Dev Chavala Mrg. Sud. 9. ; tl.
Kolhapur	56-0	Phonda	Mon.	4-0	Local Deogad	... 40-0	n.	2 Sl (2 pr.). ; 3 tl ; dg. ; lib.
Karad	99-0	Khed	...	10-0	Khed	12-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	50-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	..... Musakaji	8-0	w.	......
Kolhapur	67-0	Lanje	Tue.	7-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	8-0 37-0	w. ; cl. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 5 tl. ; lib.
Karad	118-4	Ade	...	2-4	Harnai Harnai	5-0 5-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 6 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Deogad	Fri.	6-0	...... Deogad	5-0	w.	3 Sl. (2pr, m) ; pyt ; 3tl.
Belgaum	70-0	Banda	Mon.	4-0	Banda Vengurla	3-0 18-0	w. ; rv.	3 Sl (3pr)., pyt. ; Cs (mp)., Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 2 ; 4 tl. mq. ; dg. ; lib. ; dp.
Karad	85-0	...	......	...	Guhagar Karul	12-0 2-0	cl. ; w. n.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Vithoba Fr. Kt. Sud. 11. ; 6 tl. ; mq. ; dg.

Serial No. : Village/Town name : Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) : Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office Distance.
451 Isavalī ; LNJ. ; इसावली	W; 14-0	4·0 ; 1014; 191; 570.	Satavli 4-0
452 Jayagaḍ ; RTN. ; जयगड	N; 40-0	1·5; 2309; 530; 25.	Local ..
453 Jaitāpur ; KD. ; जैतापूर	NE; 12-0	2·3; 560; 113; 471.	Tale 5-0
454 Jaitāpur Mauje ; RJP. ; जैतापूर मौजे.	W; 16-0	0·6; 2414; 468; 1203.	Local ..
455 Jālagānv ; DPL. ; जालगांव	S; 1-0	3·1; 2348; 513; 847.	Camp-Dapoli 1-0
456 Jāmage ; KD. ; जामगे	SW; 6-4	2·0; 835; 170; 757.	Murde 2-0
457 Jāmage ; DPL. ; जामगे	E; 18-0	2·6; 1228; 267; 1129.	Palgad 5-0
458 Jāmasūt ; GHR. ; जामसूत	SE; 8-0	3·3; 960; 217; 927.	Welamb 3-0
459 Jāmbhārī ; GHR. ; जांभारी	S; 20-0	3·8; 1096; 280; 1005.	Tawsal 4-0
460 Jāmbhārī ; RTN. ; जांभारी	N; 36-0	0·6; 1699; 392; 359.	Saitavade 1-4
461 Jāmbhavadē ; KDL. ; जांभवडे	NE; 22-0	6·1; 2563; 476; 2178.	Local ..
462 Jāmbhavalī ; RJP. ; जांभवली	E; 13-0	2·3; 356; 61; 294.	Kelavli 4-0
463 Jāmburḍē ; KD. ; जांबुर्डे	S; 5-0	1·0; 372; 81; 370.	Khed 3-0
464 Jamasauḍe ; DGD. ; जमसंडे	E; 1-4	11·3; 7556; 1522; 2971.	Local ..
465 Jānasī ; RJP. ; जानसी	SW; 18-0	0·9; 363; 73; 184.	Mithgavane 2-4
466 Jaṅgalavāḍī ; SGR. ; जंगलवाडी	S; 17-0	1·5; 219; 41; 213.	Devle 2-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port ; Distance		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	88-0	Beni Bk.	Sun.	2-0	...	14-0	w ; cl.	3 Sl (3 pr).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 10 to 15.; tl.
					Purnagad	15-0		
Kolhapur	104-0	Local	Daily	..	Local	..	w.; o.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; 4 tl.; 4 mq. 4 dg.; dh.; ch.; dp.; Fort; Jayaji Mahar Samadhi.
					Local	..		
Karad	103-0	Khed	..	10-0	Bharane	12-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 4 tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	100-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	Musakaji	4-0	w.	4 Sl (pr, 2 m, h).; pyt.; Vetal Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 3 tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; dh.; ch.; lib.; 3 dp.
Karad	100-0	Camp-Dapoli.	..	1-0	Dapoli	2-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp). Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; Shimaga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 9 tl.; dg.; Potteries.
					Harnai	10-0		
Karad	80-0	Khed	..	10-0	Khed	8-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 5 tl.; mq
					..	..		
Karad	121-0	Palgad	..	5-0	Palgad	5-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr); pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.; mq.
					Harnai	26-0		
Karad	87-0	..	..	..	Guhagar	13-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 3 tl.; lib.
					Dabhol	19-0		
Karad	110-0	..	..	..	Guhagar	20-0	w.; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 2 tl.
					Jaigad	12-0		
Kolhapur	115-0	Saitavade	Sat.	1-4	Saitavade	1-4	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Cs.; tl.; 2 mq. lib.; dp.
					Jaigad	8-0		
Kolhapur	62-0	Kankavli	Tue.	15-0	Nirukhe	5-0	w.	2 Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Bhagvati Fr. Mrg. Vad. 8.; 4 tl.; Cch.
					Malvan	40-0		
Kolhapur	85-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	Kondye	8-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.;
					Musakaji	28-0		
Karad	85-0	Khed	..	3-0	Jamburde Rd.	1-4	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	78-0	Deogad	Fri.	2-0	Deogad	2-0	w.	15 Sl (13 pr. m. h).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Sud. 15.; 10 tl.; mq.; 6 lib.; 4 dp.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	94-0	Rajapur	Wed.	20-0	Musakaji	7-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	63-0	Devle	Sun.	2-0	Local	..	o.	....
					..	..		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ pet. H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office : Distance.
467 Jānavaḷē ; GHR. ; जानवळें	N ; 7-0	1.7 ; 984 ; 208 ; 665	Pat Panhale 3-0
468 Jānavali ; KVL. ; जानवली	M ; 2-4	4·9 ; 1549 ; 335 ; 1113.	Kankavli 2-0
469 Jāvaḍe ; LNJ. ; जावडे	W ; 8-0	3·4 ; 1004 ; 198 ; 956.	Lanje 9-0
470 Jāvaḷe ; MDG. ; जावळे	W ; 18-0	1·3 ; 497 ; 117 ; 323.	Kelshi 7-0
471 Javaḷethar ; RJP. ; जवळेथर	SE ; 26-0	5·7 ; 864 ; 163 ; 544.	Kharepatan 10-0
472 Jogele ; DPL. ; जोगेले	NE ; 0-4	0·7 ; 142 ; 24 ; 72.	Camp-Dapoli 1-0
473 Juvāṭhī ; RJP. ; जुवाठी	SE ; 9-0	4·1 ; 1506 ; 330 ; 1053.	Korle 5-0
474 Juvē Jaitāpūr ; RJP. ; जुवे-जैतापूर	S ; 14-0	1·1 ; 530 ; 113 ; 34.	Devache-Gothane. 2-0
475 Juvē ; RTN. ; जुवे	S ; 2-0	0·7 ; 385 ; 76 ; 365.	Karle 1-0
476 Juvā-Koil ; MVN. जुवा कोईल	E ; 15-0	0·04 ; 1 ; 1 ; 1.	Poip 2-0
477 Juvā-Añjanāc ; MVN. ; जुवा-अन्जनाच	.. ..	0·03	Deserted ..
478 Juvā Dhanaji ; MVN. ; जुवा धनजी	.. ..	0·01	Deserted ..
479 Kacarē ; RTN. ; कचरें	N ; 36-0	0·2 ; 72 ; 17 ; 18.	Jaigad 4-0
480 Kaḍapaḍe Tarf Bānde ; SWT. ; कडपडे तर्फ बांदे	E ; 31-0	1·6 ; 55 ; 13 ; 55.	Tamboli 7-0
481 Kādavad ; CLN. ; कादवड	E ; 16-0	4·2 ; 1119 ; 241 ; 1044.	Akle 2-0
482 Kaḍavaī ; SGR. ; कडवई	N ; 22-0	7·3 ; 3946 ; 823 ; 2565.	Local ..

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other Information.
Karad	80-0	..	..	..	Guhagar Dabhol	7-0 16-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9.; Shimga. Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. 2 tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	58-0	Kankavli	Tue.	2-0	Kankavli Deogad	2-0 42-0	w.; o.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Dev Dipawali Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1.; 7 tl.; mq.; Cch.
Kolhapur	89-0	Lanje	Tue.	9-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	8-0 36-0	w.; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Shri Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 1 to 9.; 6 tl.
Mumbra	130-0	Panderi	Thu.	18-0	Bankot	10-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	84-0	Kharepatan	Thu.	10-0	Kharepatan Musakaji	10-0 36-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.
Karad	100-0	Camp-Dapoli.	..	1-0	Camp-Dapoli. Harnai	0-4 10-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	92-0	Rajapur	Wed.	6-0	Musakaji	22-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10.; tl.
Kolhapur	100-0	Rajapur	Wed.	14-0	Musakaji	9-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; dh.
Kolhapur	82-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	3-0	Ratnagiri	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	100-0	Masade	Wed.	2-0	Malvan	15-0	..	Deserted.
Deserted	..	Deserted	..	..	Deserted	..	..	Deserted.
Deserted	..	Deserted	..	..	Deserted	..	..	Deserted.
Kolhapur	100-0	Jaigad	Daily	4-6	.. Jaigad	4-0 4-0	w.	....
Belgaum	40-0	Banda	Mon.	9-0	Banda Vengurla	13-0 30-0	n.; spr.	tl.
Karad	..	..	..	..	Chiplun ..	15-0 .	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	79-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	8-0	.. ..	2-0 ..	w.	5 Sl (5 pr).; 2 tl.; 2 mq.; ch. lib.; 2 dp.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name, Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
483 Kaḍāval ; KDL. ; कडावल	E ; 10-0	3·5 ; 803 ; 145 ; 734.	Digas 4-0
484 Kāḍavalī ; KD. ; काडवली	SE ; 25-0	3·8 ; 1229 ; 235 ; 1054.	Dhamnand 4-0
485 Kādavaṇ ; MDG. ; कादवण	SE ; 10-0	1·7 ; 459 ; 96 ; 359.	Latwan 1-0
486 Kādīvalī ; DPL. ; कादीवली	N ; 14-0	2·7 ; 661 ; 149 ; 451.	Kudawale 1-4
487 Kājirḍā ; RJP. ; काजिर्डा	E ; 30-0	5·8 ; 1006 ; 196 ; 983.	Kharepatan 16-0
488 Kājurlī ; GHR. ; काजुर्ली	SE ; 29-0	4·3 ; 1116 ; 234 ; 925.	Veer 3-0
489 Kāḷabādevī ; RTN. ; काळबादेवी	N ; 6-0	0·9 ; 1111 ; 245 ; 134.	Basani 1-0
490 Kaḷabaste ; CLN. ; कळबस्ते	NE ; 4-0	1·[illegible] ; 573 ; 108 ; 527.	Chiplun 3-0
491 Kāḷakāvāḍī ; RJP. ; काळकावाडी	W ; 16-0	1·3 ; 366 ; 85 ; 336.	Wadanavedar 3-0
492 Kaḷakavaṇe ; MDG. ; कळकवणे	W ; 11-0	1·1 ; 178 ; 52 ; 105.	Mandangad 10-0
493 Kaḷakavaṇe ; CLN. ; कळकवणे	E ; 12-0	3·5 ; 836 ; 160 ; 685.	Local ....
494 Kaḷakī ; DPL. ; कळकी	S ; 11-0	2·0 ; 515 ; 107 ; 399.	Dabhol 5-0
495 Kaḷamaṇī Bk. ; KD. ; कळमणी बुद्रुक	N ; 4-0	3·7 ; 1437 ; 275 ; 1029.	Khed 5-0
496 Kaḷamaṇī Kh. ; KD. ; कळमणी खुर्द	E ; 23-0	5·0 ; 463 ; 95 ; 443.	Mahalunge 13-0
497 Kaḷamaṭh ; KVL. ; कळमठ	W ; 0-2	2·3 ; 2120 ; 444 ; 1366.	Kankavli 2-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	80-0	Local	Fri.	..	Local	..	w.	SI(pr).; Cs (mp).; 2 tl.; Shri Dev Linga Fr. Mrg. Sud. 9.
					Malvan	36-0		
Karad	70-0	Chiplun	..	8-0	Chiplun	6-0	w.; rv.	2 SI (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 6 tl. lib.; dp.
					..	..		
Mumbra	110-0	Mhapral	Fri.	10-0	Mhapral	22-0	w.	SI (pr).: 2 tl.
					..	..		
Karad	100-0	Kudawale	..	1-4	Dapoli	6-0	w.; rv.	2 SI (m. pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.
					Harnai	14-0		
Kolhapur	44-0	Pachal	Sun.	6-0	Kharepatan	16-0	w.; rv.	SI (pr).; tl.
					Musakaji	42-0		
Karad	95-0	..	..	..	Makhjan	10-0	w.; pit. cl.	2 SI(2 pr);. 5 tl.; Shri Jogai Fr. Phg. Sud. 14.
					Jaigad	..		
Kolhapur	85-0	Kasarveli	Daily	2-0	..	1-0	w.	SI (pr).; 3 tl.; dg.; Shimga Fr. Phg Sud. 15.
					Ratnagiri	5-0		
Karad	63-0	..	..	..	Chiplun	3-0	w.	SI (pr) ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud 15.; tl.; mq.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	95-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	Rajapur	12-0	w.	SI (pr).; tl.; dh.
					Musakaji	11-0		
Mumbra	118-0	Panderi	Thu.	12-0	Bankot	10-0	w.	tl.
					..	..		
Karad	60-0	..	..	..	Chiplun	13-0	w.	SI (pr).; 2 tl.; dp.
					..	..		
Karad	109-0	Dabhol	..	5-0	Dapoli	9-0	cl.	SI (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg.: Sud. 15.; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	6-0		
Karad	88-0	Khed	..	5-0	Local	..	w.; rv.	2 SI (2 pr).; 3 tl.
					..	..		
Karad;	103-0	Nehar	..	3-0	Ambavli	13-0	pit.; w.	SI (pr).; 3 tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	60-0	Kankavli	Tue.	2-0	Kankavli	0-2	w.	3 SI (3 pr).; pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 5 tl. mq.
					Deogad	45-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.		Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
498 Kaḷambaste ; कळंबस्ते	SGR. ;	N ;	15–0	4·3 ;	2002 ;	408 ;	1579.	Local	..
499 Kaḷambaṭ ; कळंबट	DPL. ;	N ;	8–0	2·1 ;	515 ;	107 ;	399.	Harnai	6–0
500 Kaḷambaṭ ; कळंबट	CLN. ;	W ;	25–0	4·6 ;	1232 ;	251 ;	1044.	Nivli	7–0
501 Kaḷambiśt ; कळंबिस्त	SWT. ;	E ;	15–0	4·4 ;	1645 ;	329 ;	1227.	Local	..
502 Kaḷambusī ; कळंबुशी	SGR. ;	NW ;	2 0	2·5 ;	1279 ;	277 ;	1090.	Makhjan	3–0
503 Kaḷamuṇḍī ; कळमुंडी	CLN. ;	W ;	14–0	2·0 ;	713 ;	150 ;	433.	Margtamhane	2–0
504 Kaḷaṇẽ ; कळणें	SWT. ;	SE ;	16–0	2·6 ;	575 ;	122 ;	420	Local	..
505 Kaḷasavalī ; कळसवली	RJP. ;	N ;	12–0	4·4 ;	1365 ;	261 ;	1219.	Oni	4–0
506 Kāḷase ; काळसे	MLN. ;	NW ;	14–0	3·7 ;	2677 ;	526 ,	1535.	Local	..
507 Kaḷasulī ; कळसुली	KVL. ;	SE ;	6–3	9·1 ;	3687 ;	695 ;	3411.	Local	..
508 Kaḷazoṇḍī ; कळझोंडी	RTN. ;	N ;	27–0	5·3 ;	1237 ;	262 ;	1170.	Kespuri	3–0
509 Kāḷelī ; काळेली	KDL. ;	NE ;	16–0	3·8 ;	637 ;	122 ;	589.	Mangaon	3–0
510 Kāḷuste ; काळुस्ते	CLN. ;	W ;	5–0	2·4 ;	2099 ;	401 ;	1224.	Local	..

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port; Distance.		Drinking water facilities;	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	77-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	6-0	..	2-4	w.; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Phg. Sud. 13.; and An. Sud. 1 to 10.; 8tl..mq.; dg.; Famous for the art and architectures of historically important Rameshwar Temple.
					..	..		
Karad	115-0	..	..	..				
Karad	..	Harnai	..	6-0	Harnai	3-0	w.; cl.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					Harnai	4-0		
Belgaum	58-0	..	..	..	Chiplun	16-0	rv.	2 Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	88-0	Danoli	Sun.	4-0	Sawantwadi.	12-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Shri Dev Ling Fr. Psh. Sud. 10.; 4 tl.: dh.; lib.; dp.; Cch.
					Vengurla	27-0		
Karad	..	Makhjan	Sat.	3-0	Makhjan	3-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 5 tl.
					..	..		
Belgaum	80-0	..	..	..	Chiplun	16-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	92-0	Banda	Mon.	8-0	Banda	8-0	w.; n.; r.v.	Sl (pr).; Mauli Fr. Mrg.; 4 tl.: dp.
					Vengurla	24-0		
Kolhapur	90-0	Rajapur	Wed.	8-0	Oni	4-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.; M.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
					Musakaji	18-0		
Kolhapur	68-0	Local	Thu.	..	Dhamapur	2-0	w.	3 Sl (3pr).; pyt.; Cs (fmg).; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9.; 7 tl.; M.; lib.; 2 dp.
					Malvan	12-0		
Kolhapur	104-0	Kankavli	Tue.	10-0	Kankavli	6-0	w.	5 Sl (4pr.m).; pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 12 tl; M.; lib.; dp.
					Deogad	52-0		
Belgaum	67-0	Phungus	Tue.	15-0	Local	..	w.; cl. rv.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 3 tl.
					Jaigad	3-0		
Karad	68-0	Mangaon	Tue.	3-0	Amberi	2-0	w.; p.	Sl (pr).; 6 tl.; Shri Dev. Mauli Fr. Kt. Vad. 12.; Ling Fr. Kt. Vad. 5.; Sateri Fr. Mrg. Sud. 9.
					Vengurla	17-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households , Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
511 Kaḷavaṇḍe ; CLN. ; कळवंडे	SE ; 4-0	2·9 ; 1105 ; 210 ; 1083.	Chiplun 5-0
512 Kāmathe ; CLN. ; कामथे	S ; 3-0	4·0 ; 1645 ; 312 ; 1563.	Chiplun 4-0
513 Kāmbaḷe Lāvagaṇ ; RTN. ; कांबळे लावगण	N ; 33-0	0·5 ; 283 ; 67 ; 152.	Saitavade 4-0
514 Kaṇagavalī ; LNJ. ; कणगवली	N ; 5-0	2·2 ; 702 ; 143 ; 552.	Nanij 3-0
515 Kaṇakaḍi ; SGR. ; कणकडी	S ; 8-0	4·8 ; 1514 ; 282 ; 1226.	Sakharpa 6-0
516 Kaṇakavalī ; KVL. ; कणकवली	HQ ; ...	3·3 ; 4467 ; 875 ; 1404.	Local ...
517 Kānaṭe ; LNJ. ; कानटे	W ; 6-0	1·4 ; 414 ; 85 ; 377.	Lanje 5-0
518 Kānaṭe ; MDG. ; कानटे	W ; 17-0	0·8 ; 135 ; 34 ; 105.	Veshwi 2-0
519 Kāndalagāṅv ; MVN. ; कांदळगांव	N ; 6-0	9·9 ; 5015 ; 1048 ; 3143.	Local ..
520 Kāndośī ; KD. ; कांदोशी	E ; 21-0	2·2 ; 193 ; 49 ; 173.	Mahalunge 10-0
521 Kānduli ; KDL. ; कांदुळी	E ; 17-0	1·3 ; 71 ; 14 ; 71.	Mangaon 3-0
522 Kaṇerī ; RJP. ; कणेरी	E ; 4-0	0·9 ; 619 ; 137 ; 313.	Dongar 1-4
523 Kāṅgavaī ; DPL. ; कांगवई	N ; 18-0	4·9 ; 860 ; 187 ; 734.	Kudawale 2-4
524 Kānhe ; CLN. ; कान्हे	E ; 5-0	1·5 ; 1012 ; 205 ; 584.	Local ...
525 Kānṭe ; SGR. ; कान्टे	W ; 23-0	2·6 ; 648 ; 143 ; 618.	Wandri 4

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	2-0	w.	SI (pr). ; tl.
					...	...		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	4-0	w ; rv.	2 SI (2 pr). ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	99-0	Waravde	Daily.	8-0	...	1-0	rv.	......
					Jaigad	5-0		
Kolhapur	86-0	Lanje	Tue.	6-0	Lanje	5-0	w.	SI (pr). ; pyt. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; tl.
					Ratnagiri	26-0		
Kolhapur	55-0	Devle	Sun.	3-0	...	1-4	w.	3 SI (3 pr). ; Cs (fmg). ; tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	60-0	Local	Tue.	...	Local	...	w.	4 SI (3 m, h). ; pyt. ; 2 Cs (cr).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl. ; mq. ; gym. ; lib. ; 4 dp.
					Deogad	44-0		
Kolhapur	85-0	Lanje	Tue.	5-0	Lanje	6-0	rv. ; cl.	SI (pr). ; 3 tl.
					Ranpar	12-0		
Mumbra	102-0	Panderi	Thu.	12-0	Dasgaon	28-0	spr.	tl. ; dp.
					Bankot	2-0		
Kolhapur	90-0	Hadi	Sat.	2-0	Kolamb	3-0	w.	5 SI (5 pr). ; pyt. ; 5 tl. ; dh.; lib. 2 dp. ;
					Malvan	5-0		
Karad	100-0	Nehar	...	5-0	Ambavli	14-0	spr.	SI (pr). ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Belgaum	69-0	Mangaon	Tue.	3-0	Amberi	2-0	w. ; p.	SI (pr). ; Shri Dev Sateri Fr. Mrg. Sud. 2. ; 3 tl.
					Vengurla	21-0		
Kolhapur	93-0	Rajapur	Wed.	4-0	Rajapur	4-0	w.	tl.
					Musakaji	11-0		
Karad	109-0	Kudawale	...	2-4	Dapoli	5-0	rv.	SI (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 6 tl.
					Harnai	12-0		
Karad	54-0	.....	...	...	Chiplun	6-0	w. ; rv	SI (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl. ; 2 mq. ; dg. lib.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	84-0	Phungus	Tues.	13-0	...	1-0	str. ; w.	SI (pr). ; tl.
					...	...		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
526 Kāpaḍagāṅv ; RTN. ; कापडगांव	SE ; 12-0	2·2 ; 913 ; 163 ; 502.	Pali 2-0
527 Kāpare ; CLN. ; कापरं	E ; 6-0	3·4 ; 1201 ; 250 ; 893.	Nivli 2-0
528 Kārabhāṭale ; SGR. ; कारभाटले	S ; 20-0	1·1 ; 310 ; 78 : 292.	Nayri 2-0
529 Karabuḍe ; RTN. ; करबुडे	E ; 12-0	8·0 ; 2738 ; 573 ; 2722.	Hat-Khamba 5-0
530 Karajagāṅv ; DPL. ; करजगांव	SW ; 7-0	3·1 ; 1596 ; 343 ; 772.	Burundi 1-0
531 Karajuve ; SGR. ; करजुवे	N ; 33-0	6·5 ; 1817 ; 365 ; 1664.	Makhjan 6-0
532 Karak ; RJP. ; करक	E ; 22-0	7·2 ; 1002 ; 200 ; 982.	Raypatan 5-0
533 Karambavaṇẽ ; CLN. ; करंबवणें	W ; 10-0	1·5 ; 761 ; 132 ; 635.	Bivli 1-0
534 Karambele ; SGR. ; करंबेळे	N ; 7-0	1·3 ; 593 ; 104 : 411.	Kosumb 2-0
535 Karambeḷe Tarf Devale ; SGR. ; करंबेळे तर्फ देवळे	S ; 4-0	2·3 ; 492 ; 95 ; 364.	Deorukh 4-0
536 Karañjāḷī ; DPL. ; करंजाळी	SW ; 16-0	2·4 ; 666 ; 134 ; 592.	Pophalawne 3-0
537 Karañjāṇī ; DPL. ; करंजाणी	E ; 5-0	3·6 ; 743 ; 156 ; 732.	Camp-Dapoli. 6-0
538 Karañjārī ; SGR. ; करंजारी	S ; 19-0	2·0 ; 178 ; 40 : 120.	Devle 2-4
539 Karaṭel ; KD. ; करटेल	N ; 6-0	1·9 ; 505 ; 105 ; 478.	Khed 6-0
540 Keravaḍe K. Nārur ; KDL. ; केरवडे क. नारुर.	E ; 22-0	4·9 ; 283 ; 67 ; 280.	Mangaon 9-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities ;	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	68-0	Harcheri	Mon.	5-0	... Ratnagiri	3-0 13-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	19-0 ...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Cs (mp). ; 7 tl.
Kolhapur	79-0	Nayri	Wed.	2-0	... ...	10-0 ...	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	82-0	Ratnagiri	Daily.	7-0	Local Ratnagiri	... 13-0	w. ; n.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; Water fall.
Karad	105-0	Burundi	...	1-0	Local Harnai	... 6-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; Shri Laxmi Narayan Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl. ; mq. ; dg. ; lib.
Kolhapur	96-0	Makhjan	Sat.	6-0	Makhjan ...	6-0 ...	w. ; rvr. ; n.	5 Sl (2 pr). ; Cs (fmg). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	95-0	Talavde	Sun.	4-0	Oni Musakaji	17-0 40-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; 3 tl.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	9-0 ...	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). , pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; tl. ; dh.
Kolhapur	68-0	Sangameshwer.	Wed.	4-0	.. ..	3-0 ..	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	58-0	Deorukh	Sun.	4-0	.. ...	2-0 ..	w.	tl.
Karad	117-0	Pophalawne	..	3-0	Palgad Dabhol	1-0 16-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl. ; mq. ;
Karad	93-0	Camp-Dapoli.	...	6-0	... Harnai	... 15-0	w. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 6 tl.
Kolhapur	61-0	Devle	Sun.	2-4	Local ...	.. ...	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Karad	89-0	Khed	...	6-0	Khed ...	6-0 ...	w. ; rv	Sl (pr). , 2 tl.
Belgaum	72-0	Mangaon	Tue.	9-0	Local Vengurla	... 20-0	w. ; p.	Shri Dev Khalanath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 7. ; 2 tl. ; lib. ; Cch.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
541 Kāravalī ; RJP. ; कारवली.	E ; 20-4	4·3 ; 942 ; 181 ; 927.	Raypatan 3-0
542 Karde ; DPL. ; कर्दे ..	W ; 6-0	3·0 ; 1483 ; 340 ; 617.	Murud 2-0
543 Karde ; GHR. ; कर्दे ..	S ; 21-0	2·3 ; 591 ; 113 ; 578.	Narwan 2-0
544 Karje ; KVL. ; कर्जे ..	W ; 7-0	6·4 ; 1776 ; 383 ; 1542.	Harkul Kh. 4-0
545 Kārivaḍẽ ; SWT. ; कारिवडें.	E ; 2-0	5·6 ; 1915 ; 354 ; 1370.	Charathe 3-0
546 Karjī ; KD. ; कर्जी ..	S ; 8-0	1·9 ; 1111 ; 241 ; 582.	Mumbake 3-0
547 Karel ; RJP. ; करेल ..	SW ; 10-0	0·8 ; 176 ; 35 ; 164.	Ansure 4-0
548 Karli ; SGR. ; कर्ली ..	W ; 6-0	2·8 ; 713 ; 158 ; 687.	Ambav 2-0
549 Kāruḷ ; KVL. ; कारूळ	N ; 6-4	2·1 ; 647 ; 130 ; 451.	Local ...
550 Kāruḷ ; GHR. ; कारूळ	W ; 15-0	1·2 ; 735 ; 178 , 315.	Pewe 1-0
551 Kārye ; SGR. ; कार्ये ..	NW ; 21-0	0·3 ; Deserted	... ...
552 Kās ; SWT. ; कास ..	S ; 13-0	2·2 ; 1269 ; 248 ; 1120.	Madure 2-0
553 Kasabā Vāghoṭaṇ ; DGD. ; कसबा वाघोटण.	N ; 49-4	0·1 ; 154 ; 31 ; 111.	Local ...
554 Kāsaī ; SWT. ; कासई	N ; 23-0	4·3 ; 1324 ; 313 ; 578.	Local ..
555 Kāsaī ; KD. ; कासई ..	E ; 30-0	3·3 ; 1088 ; 198 ; 1044.	Dharmand 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	92-0	Talavde	Sun.	2-0	... Musakaji	... 38-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3tl. ; dh.
Karad	109-0	Murud	...	2-0	Harnai Harnai	2-0 4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl. ; mq. ; 4 dg.
Karad	108-0	......	...	...	Guhagar Jaigad	18-0 10-0	w. ; rv. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	65-0	Kankavli	Tue.	7-0	Phonda Deogad	6-0 36-0	w. ; o.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; Dev-Dipawali Fr. Kt. Vad. 30. ; lib.
Belgaum	57-0	Sawantwadi	Tue.	4-0	Sawantwadi Vengurla	6-0 20-0	w. ; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev. Kalkai Fr. Mrg. Vad. 4. ; 2 tl. M.
Karad	71-0	Khed	...	10-0	Khed ...	10-0 ...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Cs. ; 4 mg. dg. ; dh.; lib. ; dp.
Kolhapur	80-0	Rajapur	Wed.	11-0	Rajapur Musakaji	11-0 8-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	67-0	Deorukh	Sun.	5-0	Deorukh ...	6-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Kolhapur	60-0	Phonda	Mon	5-0	Local Vijaydurg.	.. 34-0	w. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; 6 tl.
Karad	87-0	......	...	...	Guhagar Local	12-0 ...	cl. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 2 tl. ; dh.
...	...	......	...	...	Kurdhunda. ...	10-0 ...	rv.	2 tl.
Belgaum	71-0	Banda	Mon.	4-0	Banda Vengurla	5-0 18-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. 15th Dec. ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	92-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	2-0	Vijaydurg ...	27-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs. ; tl. ; dh.
Belgaum	89-0	Banda	Mon.	15-0	Banda Vengurla	15-0 40-0	w.	2 Sl (m, pr). ; tl.
Karad	93-0	Chiplun	...	12-0	Chiplun ..	12-0 ...	rv. ; t.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; 2 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
556 Kasāl ; KDL. ; कसाल.	N ;	13-0	5·6 ; 2354 ;	428 ;	1758.		Local	...
557 Kāsār Koḷavaṇ ; SGR. ; कासार कोळवण.	E ;	6-0	2·0 ; 510 ,	92 ;	510.		Tringavli	2-0
558 Kāsaraḷ ; KVL. ; कासरळ.	SW ;	2-4	1·5 ; 519 ;	100 ;	442.		Kankavli	4-0
559 Kāsāraveḷī ; RTN. ; कासारवेली.	N ;	4-0	1·2 ; 1813 ;	409 ;	222.		Basani	1-0
560 Kāsārḍe ; KVL. ; कासार्डे.	W ;	20-0	15·1 ; 4235 ;	785 ;	4074.		Local	...
561 Kāsārī ; RTN. ; कासारी.	N ;	36-0	1·8 ; 288 ;	75 ;	104.		Jaigad	3-0
562 Kasavaṇ ; KVL. ; कसवण.	S ;	5-0	2·5 ; 934 ;	197 ;	872.		Vasargaon	3-0
563 Kāse ; SGR. ; कासे ..	W ;	31-4	1·8 ; 1164 ;	211 ;	928.		Makhjan	3-0
564 Kaśeḍī ; KD. ; कशेडी.	N ;	13-0	3·4 ; 866 ;	165 ;	646.		Khavati	4-0
565 Kaśeḷī ; RJP. ; कशेळी.	W ;	16-0	5·0 ; 2462 ;	502 ;	1490.		Local	...
566 Kaśeḷī ; RTN. ; कशेळी.	E ;	10-0	2·4 ; 743 ;	133 ;	743.		Pali	3-0
567 Kātakirī ; GHR. ; कातकिरी.	NE ;	13-0	0·4 ; 93 ;	33 ;	64.		Ginvi	2-0
568 Kātāḷē ; GHR. ; काताळें.	S ;	8-0	2· 9 ; 830	196 ;	577.		Tawsal	2-0
569 Kāṭavalī ; SGR. ; काटवली.	SE ;	5-0	5·4 ; 1358 ;	245 ;	844.		Devrukh	6-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	75–0	Local	Thu.	...	Kasal	...	w.	2 Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (con). ; 6 tl. ; dh. ; dp. ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10. ; Cch.
					Malvan	24–0		
Kolhapur	51–0	Deorukh	Sun.	6–0	...	5–0	rv. ; w.	2 Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	64–0	Kankavli	Tue.	4–0	Kankavli	3–0	w. ; rv.	2 tl.
					Malvan	24–0		
Kolhapur	88–0	Ratnagiri	Daily.	4–0	Local	...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Cs. ; 2 tl. ; 3 mq. ; dp.
					Ratnagiri	5–0		
Kolhapur	64–0	Talere	Tue.	3–0	Nandgaon	4–0	w. ; rv.	6 Sl (6 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 4 tl. ; lib. ; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13. ; Vijayadashami Fr. An. Sud. 10. ; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.
					Vijaydurg	34–0		
Kolhapur	100–0	Jaigad	Daily.	3–0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt ; 2 tl.
					Jaigad	3–8		
Kolhapur	65–0	Kankavli	Tue.	5–0	Kankavli	4–0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10. ; 7 tl.
					Deogad	48–0		
Kolhapur	89–0	Makhjan	Sat.	3–0	Makhjan	1–4	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Ganpati Fr. Mg. Sud. 4 ; Gramdevi Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 ; 2 tl. : dp.
					...	...		
Satara Rd.	60–0	Khed	...	12–0	Local	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; 5 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	101–0	Rajapur	Wed.	14–0	Rajapur	14–0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). , pyt. ; 2 Cs. ; 3 tl. ; ch. ; lib.
					Musakaji	12–0		
Kolhapur	60–0	Rajapur	Wed.	15–0	...	4–0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					...	...		
Karad	89–0	......	...	...	Guhagar	10	rv.	Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	15–0		
Karad	18–0	......	...	...	Guhagar	20–0	w. ; cl. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Jaigad	8–0		
Kolhapur	66–0	Deorukh	Sun.	6–0	...	5–0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Cs. ; 3 tl. M. ; dh.
					...	...		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
570 Kātraṇ ; DPL. ; कात्रण	SE ; 22-0	1·8 ; 577 ; 132 ; 342.	Dabhol 6-0
571 Kavaḍolī ; DPL. ; कवडोली.	N ; 22-0	0·7 ; 332 ; 75 ; 276.	Kelshi 6·0
572 Kāvale ; KD. ; कावले	E ; 30-0	0 4 ; 371 ; 76 ; 358.	Anjani 2·0
573 Kavaṭhaṇī ; SWT. ; कवठणी.	SW ; 19-0	2·0 ; 911 ; 193 ; 673.	Aronda 6·0
574 Kavaṭhī ; KDL. ; कवठी.	W ; 10-0	1·1 ; 1175 ; 244 ; 421.	Chendvan 2·0
575 Kelambe ; LNJ. ; केळंबे.	E ; 2-0	1·8 ; 336 ; 62 ; 321.	Veravli Bk. 4·0
576 Keḷaṇē ; KD. ; केळणें	SE ; 27-0	3·1 ; 858 ; 157 ; 814.	Parshuram 4·0
577 Keḷaśi ; DPL. ; केळशी	W ; 18-0	1·0 ; 3212 ; 633 ; 1401.	Local ...
578 Kelavaḍē ; RJP. ; केळवडें.	W ; 5-0	1·6 ; 314 ; 66 ; 312.	Rajapur 5 0
579 Keḷavalī ; RJP. ; केळवली.	E ; 17-0	8·7 ; 2567 ; 451 ; 2511.	Local ..
580 Keḷavat ; MDG. ; केळवत.	SE ; 4-0	1·2 ; 195 ; 47 ; 113.	Mandangad 4 0
581 Keḷil ; DPL. ; केळील.	SE ; 16-0	0·7 ; 258 ; 58 ; 129.	Dabhol 5 0
582 Keḷūs ; VGR. ; केळूस	N ; 6-0	3·0 ; 1656 ; 326 ; 1607.	Tendoli 4·0
583 Keḷye ; RTN. ; केळ्ये	N ; 7-0	2·5 ; 1126 ; 255 ; 587.	Basani 3·0
584 Kendre Bk. ; SWT. ; केंद्रे बुद्रुक.	E ; 40-0	2·4 ; 12 ; 2 ; 12.	Bhedshi 9 0
585 Kendre Kh. ; SWT. ; केंद्रे खुर्द.	E ; 42-0	2·2 ; 10 ; 3 ; 10.	Bhedshi 7·0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	123-0	Dabhol	...	6-0	Dabhol Dabhol	7-0 12-0	w. ; t.	tl. ; mq. dg.
Karad	120-0	Kelshi	...	6-0	Harnai Harnai	4-0 11-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; Shri Dev Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 3 tl.
Karad	72-0	Chiplun	...	13-0	Chiplun ...	13-0 ...	rv. ; pit.	Sl (pr.) ; 2 tl.
Belgaum	80-0	Aronda	Sat.	6-0	Satarda Vengurla	2-0 18-0	w. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 8 ; 5 tl. ; Cch.
Belgaum	79-0	Valaval	Tue.	4-0	Valaval Malvan	5-0 12-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 2 tl. ; dh.
Kolhapur	82-0	Lanje	Tue.	2-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	2-0 28-0	w.	Sl (pr.), tl. ; 2 gym.
Karad	70-0	Chiplun	...	10-0	Chiplun ...	10-0 ...	pit. ; rv	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Karad	116-0	Local	...	...	Harnai Harnai	8-0 9-0	w.	3 Sl (2 pr., m.); pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 10 tl. M ; 2 mq. ; 3 dg. ; lib. ; dp.
Kolhapur	37-0	Rajapur	Wed.	5-0	Rajapur Musakaji	5-0 20-0	w. ; cl.	Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
Kolhapur	65-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	Kharepatan Musakaji	5-0 34-0	w.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; tl. ; lib.
Mumbra	112-0	Mhapral	Fri.	14-0	Dasgaon Mhapral	15-0 13-0	w. ; rv.	2 tl.
Karad	111-0	Dabhol	...	5-0	... Dabhol	... 7-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Belgaum	86-0	Vengurla	Mon.	6-0	Kudal Vengurla	6-0 7-0	w. ; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. , Shri Devi Taradevi Fr. Kt. Vad. 4 ; 12 tl. ; M. ; ch.
Kolhapur	88-0	Kasarveli	Daily	2-0	.. Ratnagiri	0-4 7-0	cl. , w. rv.	Sl (pr). ; Phg. Vad. 11. ; 3 tl. ; mq. ; 2 dg. ; Shri Vishweshwar Mandir. ; (Historically important.)
Belgaum	44-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	9-0	Bhedshi Vengurla	9-0 5?-0	rv.	
Belgaum	42-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	7-0	Konalkatta Vengurla	32-0 53-0	rv.	
Belgaum	87-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	6-0	Banda Vengurla	30-0 30-0	n.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Khalnath Pavanai Fr. Mrg. Sud. 4. ;

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
586 Ker ; SWT. ; केर ..	E ; 30-0	8·1 ; 514 ; 95 ; 505.	Bhedshi 6-0
587 Keravade Tarf Māṇagānv ; KDL. ; केरवडे तर्फ माणगांव	E ; 5-0	1·1 ; 871 ; 163 ; 781.	Tulsuli Tarf Mangaon 1-0
588 Kere ; CLN. ; केरे ..	W ; 25-0	1·7 ; 320 ; 59 ; 310.	Nivli 9-0
589 Keril ; MDG. ; केरीळ	W ; 13-0	0·8 ; 115 ; 34 ; 35.	Bankot 8-0
590 Kesari ; SWT. ; केसरी	E ; 11-0	6·7 ; 440 ; 87 ; 320.	Danoli 2-0
591 Ketaki ; CLN. ; केतकी	W ; 9-0	1·2 ; 632 ; 118 ; 264.	Local ...
592 Khadapoli ; CLN. ; खडपोली	E ; 7-0	2·7 ; 1050 ; 222 ; 935.	Kanhe 2-0
593 Khādāt ; CLN. ; खादाट	E ; 4-0	1·6 ; 407 ; 76 ; 357.	Chiplun 3-0
594 Khaḍī Kolavaṇ ; SGR. ; खडी कोळवण	E ; 16-0	6·7 ; 913 ; 196 ; 844.	Deorukh 16-0
595 Khaḍapaḍe Tarf Maṇeri ; SWT. ; खडपडे तर्फ मणेरी	SE ; 23-0	1·6 ;	Deserted ...
596 Khājaṇ Taḍanāṇār ; RJP. ; खाजण तडनाणार	SW . 18-0	0·02 ;	Deserted ...
597 Khālagānv ; RTN. ; खालगांव	N ; 20-0	5·0 ; 1155 ; 235 ; 834.	Malgund 8-0
598 Khānavali ; LNJ. ; खानवली	W ; 14-0	6·9 ; 1391 ; 289 ; 1346.	Satavli 5-0
599 Khāṇḍakar Koṇḍ ; RTN. ; खांडकर कोंड	SE ; 10-0	6·6 ; 301 ; 69 ; 252.	Harcheri 1-4
600 Khāṇḍotri ; CLN. ; खांडोत्री	W ; 21-0	1-8 ; 565 ; 113 ; 505.	Nivli 5-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	87-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	6-0	Banda Vengurla	30 0 30-0	n.	Sl (Pr).; Shri Khalnath Pavanai Fr. Mrg. Sud. 4. ;
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	5-0	Bambarde T. Mangaon Vengurla	2-0 15-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (m). ; Shri Dev Jagannath Fr. Kt. vad. 7 ; 3 tl.
Karad	...	...	...	...	Chiplun ...	18-0 ...	w. ; str	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Mumbra	115-0	Panderi	Thu.	12-0	... Bankot	... 8-0	pit.	tl.
Belgaum	53-0	Danoli	Sun.	2-0	Danoli Vengurla	2-0 24-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; Sateri Fr. Ps. Vad. 12. Swayambhu Temple Fr. Kt. Sud 15. ; 4 tl.
Karad	...	...	...	...	Chiplun ...	7 0 ...	...	Sl (pr). ; Cs (fmg). ; tl.
Karad	54-0	...	...	...	Chiplun ...	8-0 ...	w.	S.l (pr). ; 5 tl. ; mq. ;
Karad	3-0	...	...	...	Chiplun ...	3-0 ...	w. ; rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	51-0	Deorukh	Sun.	16-0	... ...	6-0 ...	w. ; rv	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
Deserted	...	Deserted	...	...	..	..	.....	Deserted.
Deserted	...	Deserted		...	Deserted	...	......	Deserted.
Kolhapur	63-0	Phungus	Tue.	7-0	Local Tivari	... 12-0	w. ; rv. cl.	; 2 Sl (2 pr). ; 2 tl. ; lib.
Kolhapur	94 0	Beni Bk.	Sat.	2-0	Lanje Ranpar	14-0 9-0	rv. ; w; cl.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10. ; 5 tl.
Kolhapur	91-0	Harcheri	Mon.	1-4	... Ratnagiri	... 12-0	...	Sl (pr). ;
Karad	...	...	...	...	Chiplun ..	14-0 ...	w. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
601 Khānayāḷe ; SWT. ; खानयाळें	NE ; 30–4	3·7 ; 234 ; 39 ; 233.	Bhedshi 2 0
602 Khānoli ; VGR. ; खानोली	N ; 4–0	7·7 ; 3267 · 640 ; 17(3.	Local ..
603 Khānū ; RTN. ; खानू	E ; 17·0	3·4 ; 1146 ; 226 ; 1065.	Pali 2·0
604 Kharāḍī ; SWT. ; खराडी	E ; 41–0	Deserted	....
605 Kharavate ; DPL. ; खरवते	N ; 18–0	1·4 ; 322 ; 69 ; 277.	Kelshi 8·0
606 Kharavate ; CLN. ;- खरवते	S ; 10–0	5·0 ; 1191 ; 240 ; 1022.	Ombali 2·0
607 Kharavate ; KD. ; खरवते	E ; 24·0	1·3 ; Deserted ...	....
608 Kharavate ; RTN. ; खरवते	N ; 10·0	2·1 ; 492 ; 104 ; 492.	Kotavde 2·0
609 Kharavate ; RJP. ;- खरवते	N ; 6·0	4·58 ; 1310 ; 288 , 978.	Oni 4·0
610 Khārepāṭaṇ ; KVL. ; खारेपाटण	N ; 32–0	3·2 ; 3400 ; 597 ; 1259.	Local ...
611 Khārī ; KD. ; खारी ..	E ; 1–0	0·5 ; 409 ; 189 ; 384.	Mumbake 3·0
612 Khāvaḍī ; LNJ. ; खावडी	S ; 5–0	3·8 ; 850 ; 176 ; 818.	Satavli 6 0
613 Khavaṭī ; KD. ; खवटी	N ; 10–0	3·7 ; 1118 ; 203 ; 955.	Local ...
614 Kheḍ ; KD. ; खेड ..	HQ ; ...	2·9 ; 6477 , 1168 ; 1225.	Local ...
615 Kheḍaśī ; RTN. ; खेडशी	E ; 6–4	5 1 ; 1186 ; 263 ; 899.	Shirgaon 4 0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	94-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	2-0	Bhedshi Vengurla	2-0 47-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Belgaum	80-0	Parule	Fri.	5-0	Vengurla Vengurla	4-0 6-0	w ; t.	4 Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 2 Cs (mp ; fmg). ; Shri Dev Khalnath Fr. Kt. Sud 15. ; 4 tl. ; 2M. ; lib. ; dp. . Carvings in Nivajiwadi hill.
Kolhapur	64-0	Sakharpa	Fri.	14-0	... Ratnagiri	1-0 17-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt. ; Cs. ; tl. ; lib. ; dp.
...	...	Deserted	...	...	...	..	...	....
Karad	125-0	Kelshi	...	8-0	... Harnai	... 16-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	6-0	w.	Sl (m). ; Shri Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; 10 tl.
...	...	Deserted	...	...	...	...	...	....
Kolhapur	88-0	Kotavde	Daily	2-0	Kasarveli Ratnagiri	6-0 12-0	w. ; rv. ; cl.	2 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Rajapur	Wed.	5-0	... Musakaji	... 20-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 5 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Local	Tue.	...	Local Vijaydurg	... 38-0	w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m). ; pyt. ; 6 tl. ; 2mq. ; dg. ; dh. ; ch. ; lib. ; 3dp.
Karad	86-0	Khed	...	2-0	Khed	1-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; tl. ; mq.
Kolhapur	60-0	Beni Bk.	Sat.	8-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	5-0 33-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Karantha devi Fr. Kt. Vad. 14. ; 3 tl.
Satara Rd.	60-0	Khed	...	10-0	Local	...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Cs (cr). ; 3 tl. ; lib.
Karad	85-0	Local	...	...	Local	..	pl. ; w.	5 Sl (3 pr, m, h). ; 2 Cs (cr). ; 17 tl. ; 4 mq. ; 4 dg. ; 2 dh. ; gym. ; ch. ; lib. ; 9 dp. ; Caves.
Kolhapur	76-0	Ratnagiri	Daily.	7-0	... Ratnagiri	1-0 6-4	spr.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; Cs (c.) ; 2 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
616 Kheraśet ; CLN. ; खेरशेत.	S ; 17-0	2·1 ; 1097 ; 229 ; 710.	Arvali 1-0
617 Kheravase ; LNJ. , खेरवसे.	E ; 3-0	3·2 ; 522 ; 94 ; 436.	Shiposhi 5-0
618 Kherḍi , CLN. , खेर्डी	E ; 3-0	2·5 ; 1616 ; 287 ; 1211.	Chiplun 3-0
619 Kherḍi , DPL. ; खेर्डी	NE ; 4-0	1·2 ; 1139 ; 239 ; 829.	Camp-Dapoli 3-0
620 Khiṇagiṇī ; RJP. ; खिणगिणी.	S ; 6-0	2·1 ; 467 ; 88 ; 449.	Bhoo 1-0
621 Khoḍade ; GHR. ; खोडदे.	S ; 20-0	6·2 ; 1577 ; 344 ; 1562.	Narwan 11-0
622 Khopaḍ ; CLN. ; खोपड.	W ; 6-0	1·8 ; 482 ; 109 ; 435.	Bivli ...
623 Khopī ; KD. ; खोपी	E ; 16-0	8·2 ; 2481 ; 493 ; 1994.	Local ...
624 Koṇḍhraṇ ; SGR. ; कोंढरण.	SW ; 8-0	0·3 ; 156 ; 36 ; 149.	Wandri 9-0
625 Khopral ; SWT. ; खोप्रल.	NE ; 30-0	1·9 ; 343 ; 81 ; 341.	Bhedshi 4-0
626 Khoraninako ; LNJ. ; खोरनिनको.	E ; 10-0	12·5 ; 1047 ; 198 ; 890.	Prabhanvalli 2-0
627 Khoṭaḷe ; MVN. ; खोटळें.	NE ; 20-0	3·0 ; 1094 ; 200 ; 965.	Golwan 3-0
628 Kinaḷe ; SWT. ; किनळें	S ; 16-0	1·1 ; 570 ; 136 ; 386.	Aronda 5-0
629 Kinaṭos ; KDL. ; किनटोस.	E . 7-0	2·2 ; 211 ; 41 ; 202.	Digas 2-0
630 Kinhaḷ ; DPL. ; किन्हळ	S ; 6-0	1·3 ; 384 ; 95 ; 177.	Burondi 3-0

Railway Stn ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad ...	... ...	Chiplun 18-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 3 tl.
		......		
Kolhapur 86-0	Lanje Tues. 6-0	Lanje 3-0	w.	tl.
		Ratnagiri 28-0		
Karad 56-0	....	Chiplun 3-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; mq. ; dh. ; dp.
Karad 102-0	Camp-Dapoli. ... 4-0	Camp-Dapoli. 4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 7 tl.
		Harnai 13-0		
Kolhapur 85-0	Rajapur Wed. 5-0	Rajapur 6-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
		Musakaji 12-0		
Karad 94-0	....	Guhagar 19-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 4 tl.
		Dabhol 28-0		
Karad ...	....	Chiplun 5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 6 tl. ; dg. ; dh.
Karad 78-0	Khed ... 11-0	Local ...	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; 10 tl. ; dp.
Kolhapur 81-0	Deorukh Sun. 19-0	... 8-0	...	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl. ; lib.
Belgaum 85-0	Kankumbi Fri. 6-4	Bhedshi 4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl. ; Sateri Fr. Kt. or Mrg.
		Vengurla 43		
Kolhapur 70-0	Lanje Tue. 16-0	Prabhanvalli. 4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 2 tl.
		Ratnagiri 42-0		
Kolhapur 73-0	Viran Wed. 4-0	Masade 4-0	w. ; n.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Sud. 12. ; 6 tl.
		Malvan 26-0		
Belgaum 84-0	Aronda Sat. 5-0	Sawantwadi. 15-0	w. ; spr	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Khalnath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 14. ; tl. ; Cch. ;
		Vengurla 16-0		
Belgaum 80-0	Kadaval Fri. 2-0	Kadaval 4-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Khemral Fr. Mg. Sud 15. ; 2 tl.
		Malvan 32-0		
Karad 109-0	Burondi ... 3-0	Dapoli 9-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
		Dabhol 13-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
631 Kinjalaghar ; MDG ; किंजळघर.	W ; 10-0	0·9 ; 47 ; 6 ; 35.	Mandangad 11-0
632 Kiñjalē Tarf Khed ; KD. ; किंजळें तर्फ खेड.	E ; 20-0	0·9 ; 181 ; 42 ; 146.	Mahalunge 9-0
633 Kiñjalē Tarf Nātū ; KD. ; किंजळे तर्फ नातू.	N ; 16-0	1·9 ; 402 ; 89 ; 146.	Tale 6-0
634 Kiñjalē ; SGR. ; किंजळे.	NE ; 14-0	2·9 ; 334 ; 62 ; 271	Teryen 9
635 Kiñjavaḍe ; DGD. ; किंजवडे.	SE ; 12-0	1·3 ; 1574 ; 537 ; 2403.	Kotkamate 3-0
636 Kirabeṭ ; SGR. ; किरबेट.	NE ; 16-0	4·5 ; 877 ; 163 ; 841.	Sakharpa 7
637 Kiradāḍī ; SGR. ; किरदाडी.	W ; 4-0	1·0 ; 160 ; 39 ; 159.	Kondkadamrao. 2
638 Kiraḍūve ; SGR. ; किरडूवे.	SW ; 9-0	1·8 ; 546 ; 97 ; 530.	Wandri 8
639 Kirlos ; MVN. ; किर्लोस.	E ; 22-0	3·7 ; 1145 ; 225 ; 983.	Ramgad 2-0
640 Kocare ; VGR. ; कोचरे.	S ; 12-0	5·6 ; 3543 ; 709 ; 1785.	Local ..
641 Kocarī ; LNJ. ; कोचरी.	W ; 15-0	6·4 ; 1648 ; 282 ; 1578.	Shiposhi 5-0
642 Koḍage ; LNJ. ; कोडगे.	SE ; 4-0	4·7 ; 1137 ; 209 ; 782.	Raypatan 6-0
643 Kodavalī ; RJP. ; कोदवली.	N ; 2-0	3·2 1161 ; 200 ; 1086.	Rajapur 2-0
644 Kogale ; DPL. ; कोगले.	N ; 16-0	2·4 ; 706 ; 171 ; 653.	Anjarle 5-0
645 Koil ; MVN. ; कोईल.	E ; 15-0	1·0 ; 513 ; 116 ; 495.	Bandivde Bk. 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Mumbra	105-0	Panderi	...Thu.	9-0	... Bankot ...	... 10-0	w.	
Karad	99-0	Khed	... ...	15-0	Ambavli ...	12-0 ...	rv.	tl.
Karad	94-0	Khed	... ...	14-0	Khed	15-0 ...	spr.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	73	Sangamesh-war	Wed.	6-0	... ...	12-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr). ,2 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Tale Bazar	Thur.	4-0	Mithbaon ...	6-0 ...	w. ; cl.	pyt.; Cs. (mp).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10.; 7 tl.
Kolhapur	46	Sakharpa	...Sat.	7-0	Sakharpa ...	6-0 ...	w. str.	Sl (pr).; tl.; lib.
Kolhapur	65	Deorukh	Sun.	4-0	Deorukh ...	4-0 ...	w.	
Kolhapur	77	Sangamesh-war.	Wed.	6-0	... ...	9-0 ...	rsr.; n.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	70-0	Ramgad	Mon.	2-0	Ramgad Malvan	3-0 19-0	rv.; w.: n.	3 Sl (3 pr).; 3 tl.
Belgaum	87-0	Parule	Fri.	5-0	Kudal Vengurla	11-0 12-0	w.; rv.	6 Sl (6 pr).; pyt.; Shri Dev Khalnath Fr. Mg. Vad. 12; Shri Devi Bhavai Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 7 tl.; M.; dp.
Kolhapur	80-0	Lanje	Tue.	10-0	Shiposhi Ratnagiri	4-0 32-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr.): Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	52-0	Pachel	Sun.	7-0	Bhambed Ratnagiri	6-0 45-0	w ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr); pyt.; Shri Dev Kalamba Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10; Kt. Sud. 15 & Phg. Sud. 15.
Kolhapur	82-0	Rajapur	Wed.	2-0	Rajapur Musakaji	2-0 19-0	cl.; w.	5 Sl (pr: 2 m; 2h).; pyt.; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 6 tl.: Training College.
Karad	104-0	Anjarle	...	5-0	Harnai Harnai	5-0 5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	96-0	Viran	...Wed.	4-0	Adivali Malvan	2-0 16-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).: Dahikala Fr. Ps. Vad. 1.; 2 tl.

Serial No. : Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
646 Kokare ; CLN. ; कोकरे	NW ; 17-0	4·1 : 2018 ; 388 ; 1911.	Bivli 2-0
647 Kolabāndre ; DPL ; कोळबांद्रे	SE. 6-0	5·3 ; 1444 ; 326 ; 833.	Camp-Dapoli 8-0
648 Koḷadhe ; LNJ. ; कोळधे	W ; 6-0	2·8 : 628 : 131 ; 528.	Lanje 6-0
649 Kolagāṅv ; SWT. ; कोलगांव	N ; 1-0	7·3 ; 1522 ; 439 ; 1130.	Local ..
650 Koḷakavāḍī ; CLN. ; कोळकवाडी	E ; 10-0	13·1 ; 2217 ; 471 ; 1914.	Shirgaon 3-0
651 Koḷamb ; RJP. ; कोळंब	E ; 27-0	5·4 ; 845 ; 159 ; 698.	Kharepatan 16-0
652 Koḷambe ; RTN ; कोळंबें	S ; 5-0	6·3 ; 1456 ; 261 ; 1414.	Ratnagiri 4-0
653 Koḷambe ; SGR ; कोळंबे	NW ; 16-3	3·2, 1294 ; 255 ; 1237.	Wandri 4
654 Kolathare ; DPL ; कोळथरे	SW 20-0	1·4 ; 1375 ; 285 ; 788.	Local ..
655 Kolavalī ; GHR. ; कोळवली	SE ; 28-0	2·2 ; 824 ; 18[illegible] ; 818.	Veer 7-0
656 Koḷavaṇ ; RTN. ; कोळवण	E ; 19-0	0·4 ;	Deserted ..
657 Kolavaṇcunā ; RJP. ; कोळवण चुना	N ; 12-0	3·4 ; 1055 ; 206 ; 982.	Oni 4-0
658 Koḷavaṇakhaḍī ; RJP. ; कोळवण खडी	NE ; 14-0	3·1 ; 585 ; 107 ; 233.	Saundal 2-4
659 Kolazar ; SWT. ; कोलझर	E ; 19-0	3·0 ; 790 ; 167 ; 623.	Kalne 3-0
660 Koḷisare ; RTN. ; कोळीसरे	N ; 30-0	3·0 ; 632 ; 122 ; 598.	Kespuri 4-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	16-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr.). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 2 tl. ; mq.; lib.
					...	...		
Karad	107-0	Camp-Dapoli ...		8-0	Dapoli	3-0	w. ; t.	Sl (pr.). ; pyt.; 7 tl.
					Harnai	15-0		
Kolhapur	86-0	Lanje	...Tue.	6-0	Lanje	6-0	rv. ; cl.	Sl (pr.). ; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; Shri Mallikarjun Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13.
					Ranpar	12-0		
Belgaum	63-0	Sawantwadi	Tue.	2-0	Sawant-wadi.	2-0	w.	Sl (pr.). ; pyt. ; Dahikala Fr. Kt. Sud. 5. ; 4 tl. ; M. ; mq. ; 3 dg. ; dp.; Cch.
					Vengurla	16-0		
Karad	51-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	14-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr.). ; 6 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	42-0	Pachal	Sun.	6-0	Kharepatan.	17-0	w.	Sl (pr.). ; tl.
					Musakaji	44-0		
Kolhapur	86-0	Tonde	Sat.	3-0	Ratnagiri	5-0	w.	4 Sl (4 pr.). ; Cs. 3 tl.
Kolhapur	77-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	6-0	Local	2-1	w. rv ;	2 Sl (2 pr.). ; Cs. (mp.). ; mq.
Karad	115-0	Local	...	...	Local	...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr.). ; 7 tl.; 2 mq.; dg.; 2 lib.
					Dabhol	7-0		
Karad	107-0	......	...	...	Makhjan	15-0	cl. ; w. ;	Sl (pr.).; 3 tl.
					Jaigad	...	n. ; pit	
Deserted	...	Deserted	...	...	...	...	...	Deserted.
Kolhapur	80-0	Lanje	Tue.	6-0	Oni	4-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr.). , Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl.
					Musakaji	20-0		
Kolhapur	94-0	Pachal	Sun.	5-4	Oni	6-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; tl.
Belgaum	81-0	Banda	Mon.	9-0	Banda	10-0	w. ; n. ;	Sl (pr.); Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Ps. Sud. 9. ; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	27-0	rv.	
Kolhapur	92-0	Waravde	Daily	8-0	...	2-0	w.; cl. ; rv.	Sl (pr.). ; Kt. Sud. 11. 5tl. ; Temple of Laxmi—Keshav.
					Jaigad	10-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance
661 Kolhevāḍī ; LNJ. ; कोल्हेवाडी	E ; 10–0	2·1 ; 559 ; 87 ; 517.	Shiposhi 1–0
662 Kolośī ; KVL. ; कोळोशी	NW ; 20–0	3·1 ; 975 ; 210 ; 795.	Local ...
663 Kombhe ; RJP. ; कोंभे	W ; 17–0	0·3 ; 234 ; 43 ; 233.	Wadanavedar 3–0
664 Konāḷ ; SWT. ; कोनाळ	NE ; 31–0	3·6 ; 786 ; 150 ; 646.	Bhedshi 2–0
665 Konās ; SWT. ; कोनास	SE ; 11–0	2·8 ; 381 ; 81 ; 379.	Tamboli 3–0
666 Konavalī ; MDG. ; कोनवली	SW ; 10–0	2·1 : 337 ; 92 ; 324.	Mandangad 9–0
667 Koṇḍadasūr ; RJP. ; कोंडदसूर	S ; 8–0	0·8 ; 228 ; 47 ; 80.	Satavli 2–0
668 Koṇḍakadam ; SGR. ; कोंडकदम	W ; 5–0	1·7 ; 429 ; 83 ; 313.	Local .....
669 Koṇḍamaḷā ; CLN. ; कोंडमळा	S ; 8–0	3·0 ; 1,413 ; 267 ; 1,366	Savarda 1–4
670 Koṇḍ Ambeḍū ; SGR. ; कोंड आंबेडू	NW ; 11–4	3·9 ; 134 ; 28 ; 55.	Sangameshwar. 1–0
671 Koṇḍ Asūrḍe ; SGR. ; कोंड असूर्डे	NW ; 11–0	1·6 ; 791 ; 151 ; 448.	Navdi 0–4
672 Koṇḍ Bhairav ; SGR. ; कोंड भैरव	E ; 39–0	0·7 ; 741 ; 1[illegible] ; 74.	Kuthave 4–0
673 Koṇḍ Bhūjabal ; SGR. ; कोंड भूजबळ	W ; 5–0	1·4 ; 346 : 77 ; 294.	Kondkadamrao. 1–0
674 Koṇḍagāṅv ; SGR. ; कोंडगांव	E ; 9–0	3·1 ; 2,335 ; 421 ; 1,640.	Local .....
675 Koṇḍaphaṇasavaṇe ; CLN. ; कोंडफणसवणे	E ; 12–0	4·2 523 ; 112 ; 465.	Shirgaon 2–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port; Distance		Drinking water facilities;	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	61-0	Shiposhi	Sat.	1-0	Local	......	w.	Sl (pr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
					Ratnagiri	33-0		
Kolhapur	60-0	Local	Wed.	......	Local	.....	w.	2 Sl (pr. m). ; pyt. ; Cs (cr). ; 5 tl. ; dh. ; lib.
					Deogad	20-0		
Kolhapur	95-0	Rajapur	Wed.	14-0	Rajapur	14-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Musakaji	8-0		
Belgaum	90-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	2-0	Konalkatta	24-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Vengurla	42-0		
Belgaum	80-0	Banda	Mon.	8-0	Sawant-wadi	11-0	t.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; tl.
					Vengurla	22-0		
Mumbra	124-0	Panderi	Thu.	6-0	.....	.....	cl.	Sl (pr). ; Navaratra Fr. An. Sud 1 to 10. ; tl. ; dg. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.
					Mhapral	16-0		
Kolhapur	92-0	Beni Bk.	Sat.	3-4	......	......	w. ; cl. ; rv.	Sl (pr).
					Musakaji	13-0		
Kolhapur	65-0	Deorukh	Sun.	4-0	Deorukh	5-0	w.	Sl (m).
Karad	......	......	......	.....	Chiplun	6-0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m). , 2 tl.
Kolhapur	72-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	1-0	Sangameshwar.	14-0	n. ; rsr.	tl.
Kolhapur	72-0	Navdi	Wed.	0-4	Sangameshwar.	0-2	rsr. ; w. ; n.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 3 tl.
Karad	100-0	Makhjan	Sat.	14-0	.....	13-0	w. ; rv.	....
Kolhapur	65-0	Deorukh	Sun.	4-0	Deorukh	5-0	w.	Sl (m). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	51-0	Local	Sat.	.....	Local	.....	w.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; Cs. ; 11 tl. ; M. ; dh. ; ch. ; lib. ; 2 dp.
Karad	52-0	......	.....	......	Chiplun	12-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 2 tl.
					.....	.....		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling Distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office : Distance
691 Kondye ; SGR. ; कोंडये	NW : 18-0	3·4 ; 1226 ; 210 ; 1167.	Sakharpa 3-0
692 Kondye Tarf Saundal ; RJP. ; कोंडये तर्फ सौंदळ	S : 6-0	3·9 ; 1089 ; 181 ; 1012.	Korle 15-0
693 Koñzar ; MDG. ; कोंझर	S : 2-0	1·2 ; 108 ; 35 ; 48.	Mandangad 1-0
694 Korle ; LNJ. ; कोर्ले	NE : 8-0	3·3 ; 933 ; 170 ; 652.	Veravli Bk. 3-0
695 Korle ; DGD. ; कोर्ले	NE : 26-0	2·5 ; 711 ; 137 ; 560.	Local ...
696 Koregāñv ; KD. ; कोरेगांव	SW : 4-0	1·7 ; 783 ; 160 ; 588.	Mumbake 5-0
697 Kosabī ; CLN. ; कोसबी	S : 17-0	2·9 ; 804 ; 158 ; 664.	Nandagaon 5-0
698 Kosumb ; SGR. ; कोसुंब	SE : 4-0	4·0 ; 1668 ; 331 ; 1444.	Local ...
699 Kot ; LNJ. ; कोट	W : 8-0	5·8 ; 1480 ; 273 ; 1370.	Lanje 10-0
700 Kotalūk ; GHR. ; कोतळूक	N : 14-0	7·4 ; 1786 ; 391 ; 1654.	Welamb 5-0
701 Koṭakāmatẽ ; DGD. ; कोटकामतें	E : 18-0	2·8 ; 2994 ; 572 ; 2332.	Local ...
702 Kotāpūr ; RJP. ; कोतापूर	S : 8-0	5·8 ; 1562 ; 319 ; 1467.	Bhoo 2-0
703 Kotavaḍẽ ; RTN. ; कोतवडे	N : 9-0	4·6 ; 2726 ; 589 ; 1844.	Local ...
704 Kotavalī ; KD. ; कोतवली	N : 16-0	3·3 ; 1097 ; 203 ; 953.	Anajani 2-0
705 Kotrālī ; CLN. ; कोत्राली	W : 10-0	3·9 ; 1421 ; 274 ; 1033.	Local ...

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port; Distance		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	78-0	Sakharpa	Sat.	3-0	Kurdhunda ...	5-0 ...	w.; nr.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Cs (mis).; 5 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	Local Musakaji	... 21-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 3 tl.
Mumbra	112-0	Panderi	Tue.	8-0	... Mhapral	... 10-0	rv.; spr.	2 tl.
Kolhapur	90-0	Lanje	Tue.	10-0	Local Ratnagiri	... 37-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Cs (fmg.).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	70-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	5-0	Vijaydurg ...	28-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr).; Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10.; 13 tl.
Karad	89-0	Khed	...	4-0	Khed ..	5-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (cr).; Vitthal Jayanti Fr. Ct. Vad. 11.; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	17-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr).; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	65-0	Deorukh	Sun.	4-0	... ..	4-0 ..	w.; tl.	3 Sl. (3 pr).; Ct. Sud. 15 (Maruti fair) Ct. Sud. 9 (Ramfair) Kt. Sud. 11 (Vitthal fair).; 6 tl.; dh.; 2 lib.
Kolhapur	90-0	Lanje	Tue.	10-0	Lanje Ranpar	8-0 10-0	rv.; cl.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 7 tl.
Karad	88-0	......	...	...	Local Dabhol	.. 21-0	w.; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr).; 6 tl.
Kolhapur	65-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	5-0	Mithbaon ..	6-0 ..	w.	4 Sl (pr. 3 m).; pyt.; Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10; 15 tl.; mq; lib.
Kolhapur	95-0	Rajapur	Wed.	7-0	Rajapur Musakaji	8-0 9-0	w.; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; 7 tl.
Kolhapur	86-0	Ratnagiri	Daily.	4-0	Kasarveli Ratnagiri	5-0 9-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Cs (fmg. th).; 2 tl.; mq.; ch.; lib.
Karad	72-0	Khed	...	12-0	Lote ...	10-0 ...	w.; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Ur. Ps. Vad. 2.; 4 tl.; mq.; dg.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	10-0 ...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; Chaitravali Fr. Ct.; 6 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
706 Kubhāṇḍ ; KD. ; कुभांड	E ; 14-0	0·6 ; 977 ; 208 ; 884.	Khopi 2-0
707 Kuḍāḷ ; KDL. ; कुडाळ	HQ ; ...	4·4 ; 5852 ; 1018 ; 1810.	Local ...
708 Kuḍalī ; GHR. ; कुडली	S ; 25-0	4·5 ; 1949 ; 457 ; 1226.	Tawsal 4-0
709 Kuḍap ; CLN. ; कुडप	N ; 12-0	2·6 ; 772 ; 160 ; 738.	Savarda 2-0
710 Kuḍdse ; SWT. ; कुडासे	... 26-0	5·6 ; 1082 ; 192 ; 962.	Bhedshi 4-0
711 Kuḍāvaḷe ; DPL. ; कुडावळें	N ; 11-0	6·03 ; 1206 ; 248 ; 943.	Local ...
712 Kuḍāvaḷī ; SGR. ; कुडावळी	SE ; 3-0	1·5 ; 237 ; 46 ; 148.	Deorukh 4-0
713 Kuḍopī ; MLN. ; कुडोपी	N ; 19-0	3·4 ; 455 ; 96 ; 421.	Trimbak 7-0
714 Kuḍośī ; KD. ; कुडोशी	E ; 5-0	3·8 ; 738 ; 130 ; 712.	Khed 4-0
715 Kuḍūk Bk. ; MDG. ; कुडूक बुद्रुक	W ; 14-0	2·2 ; 744 ; 192 ; 728.	Bankot 5-0
716 Kuḍuk Kh. ; MDG. ; कुडूक खुर्द	E ; 10-0	2·8 ; 821 ; 169 ; 500.	Mandangad 9-0
717 Kuḷavandi ; KD. ; कुळवंडी	E ; 9-0	3·9 ; 1516 ; 286 ; 1244.	Khopi 5-0
718 Kuḷe ; SGR. ; कुळें	NE . 15-0	2·8 ; 543 . 115 ; 529.	Kasumh ..
719 Kumāme ; MVN. ; कुमामे	NW ; 15-0	1·9 ; 212 ; 55 ; 154 ;	Katta 5-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	97-0	Khed	..	10-0	Khopi	1-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 4 tl.
					...	...		
Belgaum	73-0	Local	Wed.	..	Local	..	w.	4 Sl (3 pr ; m). ; pyt. ; 2 Cs (mp. con). ; Fort on the river bank. 9 tl. M. ; mq. ; 2 dg. ; 3 dh. lib. 6 dp. ; Shri Dev Kudaleshwar fair Kt. Vad 5, Shridev Bhairav Fr. Kt. Sud 3 ; Shri Devi Laxmi fr. Kt. Vad. 7
					Vengurla	13-0		
Karad	110-0	....	..	..	Makhjan	22-0	w. ; cl.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; 3 tl. ; dh.
					Jaigad	12-0		
Karad	..	....	..	..	Chiplun	10-0	w.	Sl (pr.). ; 3 tl.
					..	..		
Belgaum	85-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	4-0	Bhedshi	4-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (m). ; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	43-0		
Karad	113-0	Local	..	..	Dapoli	7-0	w. ; rv. cl.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Vad. 1. Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 5 tl. ; mq. ; gym. ; ch.
					Harnai	18-0		
Kolhapur	65-0	Deorukh	Sun.	4-0	..	2-0	rv.	Chokoba Fr. Ash. Sud 11. ; 3 tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	85-0	Chindar	Fri.	7-0	Adivali	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr). ; Mrg. Vad 8. ; tl.
					Malvan	16-0		
Karad	58-0	Khed	..	4-0	Khed	6-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					..	..		
Mumbra	100-0	Pandri	Thu.	19-0	Dasgaon	16-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
					Bankot	6-0		
Mumbra	100-0	Mhapral	Fri.	10-4	..	..	..	Sl (pr).
					Mhapral	10-0		
Karad	82-0	Khed	..	6-0	Khopi	3-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 7 tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	71-0	Deorukh	Sun.	1-0	..	10-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	80-0	Katta	Fri.	5-0	Katta	2-0	w.	Dhhikala Fr. Mrg. Vad. 7 ; 2 tl.
					Malvan	14-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
720 Kumbale ; MDG. ; कुंबळे	SE ;	5–0	1·2 ;	654 ;	143 :	500.	Palawni	8–0
721 Kumbhārakhani Bk ; SGR ; कुंभारखणी बुद्रुक	N ;	29–0	4·0 ;	1756 ;	367 :	1447.	Local	...
722 Kumbhārakhaṇī Kh SGR कुंभारखणी खुर्द	NW ;	16–0	4·0 ;	605 ;	133 ;	496.	Sangameshwar.	2–4
723 Kumbhārlī ; CLN. ; कुंभार्ली	SE ;	10–0	2·5 ;	998 ;	208 ;	810.	Shirgaon	1–0
724 Kumbhavaḍe ; RJP. ; कुंभवडे	S ;	12–0	7·0 ;	2164 ;	420 ;	1943	Nanar	6–0
725 Kumbhavaḍe ; KVL. ; कुंभवडे	E ;	10–0	9·6 ;	1711 ;	335 ;	1246.	Bhiravande	3–0
726 Kumbhavaḍe ; SWT. ; कुंभवडे	E ;	28–0	5·7 ;	197 ;	41 ;	197.	Amboli	10–0
727 Kumbhavalī ; KD. ; कुंभवळी	SE ;	25–0	0·6 ;	180 ;	36 :	143.	Dhamnand	4–0 ...
728 Kumbhave ; DPL. ; कुंभवे	E :	7–4	1·8 ;	612 ;	123 ;	520.	Wakaoli	2–0
729 Kumbral ; SWT. , कुंब्रल	S	15–0	3·5 ;	985 ;	211 ;	857.	Kalne	5-0
730 Kuṇakāvaḷe ; MLV. ; कुणकावळे	S :	12–0	2·6 ;	904 ;	627 ;	473.	Local	...
731 Kuṇkavaṇ ; DGD. ; कुणकवण	NE ;	27–0	3·8 ;	1078 ;	226 :	1036.	Kharepatan	3–0
732 Kuṇakerī ; SWT. ; कुणकेरी	N ;	4·0	4·8 ;	859 ;	241 ;	635.	Kalne	5–0
733 Kuṇakeśvar : DGD. ; कुणकेश्वर	S ;	5–0	4·0 ;	1436 ;	278 ;	534.	Dabhole	3–0
734 Kuñcāmbe ; SGR. ; कुंचांबे	N :	36–0	2·5 :	779 ;	149 ;	731.	Kumbharkhani Bk.	4

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance. / Port; Distance	Drinking water facilities;	Institutions and other information.
Mumbra 114-0	Mhapral Fri. 16-0 Dasgaon 16-0	Mhapral; 16-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; 3 tl.; mq.
Kolhapur 87-0	Makhjan Sat. 16	... 3-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 4 tl.
Kolhapur 75-0	Sangameshwar Wed. 2-4	Sangameshwar. 6-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad 48-0	....	Chiplun 12-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 5 tl.; M.; mq.; dg.
Kolhapur 88-0	Kharepatan Tue. 13-0	Musakaji 14-0	w.	4 Sl. (4 pr.); pyt; 41 tl.
Kolhapur 75-0	Kanedi Sun. 2-0	Kankavli 10-0 Deogad 52-0	w.r.	2 Sl (pr.m).; Mahalinga Sapatah Mg. Sud. 15. Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1; tl.
Belgaum 60-0	Amboli Sun. 10-0	Banda 16-0 Vengurla 37-0	w. t.	Sl. (pr). 2 tl.
Karad 71-0	Chiplun ... 7-0	Chiplun 17-0	rv.	Sl (pr.) 2 tl.; mq.
Karad 92-0	Wakavli ... 2-0	Dapoli 4-0 Harnai 13-0	rv.	Sl (pr.) 2 tl.; mq.
Belgaum 84-0	Banda Mon. 10-0	Banda 8-0 Vengurla 30-0	rv.; n.;	2 Sl (2 pr).; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Ps. Sud. 11.; 2 tl.
Kolhapur 86-0	....	Local ... Malvan 10-0	w.; n.	Dahikala Fr. Kt. Vad. 3.; 3 tl.; dh.
Kolhapur 70-0	Kherepatan Tue. 3-0	Vijaydurg 30-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10.; 5 tl.
Belgaum 84-0	Banda Mon. 10-0	Sawantwadi 5-0 Vengurla 16-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Dahikala Fr. Kt. Sud. 9; 6 tl.; dg.
Kolhapur 80-0	Deogad Fri. 5-0	Deogad 5-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.; 4 tl.
Kolhapur 91-0	Makhjan Sat. 20-0	... 10-0 ...	w. str.	Sl (m).; Cs.; 2 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
735 Kuṇḍe ; KDL. ; कुंडे	NE ; 10-0	4·1 ; 1600 ; 183 ; 899.	Kasal 3-0
736 Kuḍevāḍi ; LNJ. ; कुडेवाडी	SE ; 11-0	1·6 ; 331 ; 54 ; 324.	Valed 8-0
737 Kuṇḍi ; SGR. ; कुंडी	SE ; 10-0	5·5 ; 674 ; 142 ; 663.	Deorukh 11
738 Kupavaḍe ; KDL. ; कुपवडे	NE ; 20-0	4·8 ; 1323 ; 262 ; 1185.	Jambhavade 2-0
739 Kuracumb ; LNJ. ; कुरचुंब	NE ; 8-0	1·9 ; 658 ; 133 ; 620.	Shiposhi 3-0
740 Kuradhuṇḍe ; SGR. ; कुरधुंडे	W ; 14-0	8·0 ; 1077 ; 247 ; 795.	Local ...
741 Kuraṅg ; LNJ. ; कुरंग	SE ; 20-0	5·9 ; 835 ; 174 ; 739.	Raypatan 7-0
742 Kurṇe ; LNJ. ; कुर्णे	W ; 5-0	3·7 ; 1086 ; 204 ; 1082.	Lanje 5-0
743 Kuraṅgavaṇe ; KVL. ; कुरंगवणे	N ; 32-0	2·8 ; 813 ; 165 ; 759.	Nadgive 2-4
744 Kuraval Jāvaḷi ; KD. ; कुरवल जावळी	E ; 27-0	1·7 ; 514 ; 101 ; 498.	Marchane 4-0
745 Kuraval Kheḍ ; KD. ; कुरवल खेड	E ; 28-0	1·7 ; 405 ; 94 ; 360.	Marchane 4-0
746 Kurataḍe ; RTN. ; कुरतडे	SE ; 13-0	4·4 ; 875 ; 175 ; 568.	Ibhampattan 2-0
747 Kusabe ; KDL. ; कुसबे	NE ; 14-0	1·5 ; 481 ; 87 ; 432.	Kasal 5-0
748 Kusagāṅv ; KDL. ; कुसगांव	....	2·9 ; 326 ; 56 ; 288.	Digas 7-0
749 Kuṭivaḍe ; CLN. ; कुटिवडे	S ; 18-0	2·2 ; 908 ; 167 ; 861.	Arvali 3-0
750 Kuṭagiri ; SGR. ; कुटागिरी	E ; 17-0	2·2 ; 252 ; 659 ; 251.	Kutharo 4-0

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port ; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 71-0	Sukalwadi Sat. 7-0	Kudal 3-0 Malvan 25-0	w.	Sl (pr). Shri Dev. Ravalnath Fr. Mrg. Vad. 5. ; 9 tl.
Kolhapur 90-0	Lanje ...Tue. 15-0	Waked 8-0 Ratnagiri 39-0	w.	
Kolhapur 95-0	Deorukh Sun. 11-0	Sangameshwar 4-0	w. rv.	Sl (pr). 2 tl.
Kolhapur 64-0	Kankavli Tue. 14-0	Nirukhe 4-0 Malvan 40-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp). ; 7 tl.
Kolhapur 86-0	Lanje Tue.a 6-0	Lanje 8-0 Ratnagiri 26-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
Kolhapur 75-0	Sangameshwar 4 Wed.	Stage	w. ; n.	2 Sl (2 pr.) ; MG. 15 Urs. 2 tl; mq., dg.; lib.
Kolhapur 50-0	Pachal Sun. 6-0	Bhambed 8-0 Ratnagiri 48-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Kurangadevi Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10. ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur 80-0	Lanje Tue. 5-0	Local ...	w. ; cl. ;	Sl (pr). ; Cs., Holi Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 ; 4 tl.
Kolhapur 80-0	Kharepatan Tue. 5-0	Kharepatan. 4-0 Vijaydurg 38-0	w.	3 tl.
Karad 75-0	Chiplun ... 14-0	Bahadur Shaikh. 12-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl.
Karad 74-0	Chiplun ... 8-0	Bahadur Shaikh 14-0	w. pit.	Sl (pr) : Fr. Ct. Vad. 6.
Kolhapur 90-0	Harcheri Mon. 2-0	Harcheri 3 0 Ratnagiri 13-0	w. cl.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur 77-0	Kadaval ...Fri. 4-0	Oros 4-0 Malvan 27-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
Belgaum 82-0	Kadaval Fri. 3-0	Kadaval 4-0 Malvan 36-0	w.; cl.	Sl (pr).; Pavanai Fr. Mrg. Vad. 6., 2 tl.
Karad ...	....	Chiplun 18-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.;
Karad 98-0	Makhjan Sat. 14	... 10-0	w., str.	tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
751 Kuṭāgirī ; GHR. ; कुटागिरी	E ; 16-0	4·2 ; 1108 ; 235 ; 1040.	Ibhrampur 8-0
752 Kuṭare ; CLN. ; कुटरे	N ; 24-0	5·0 ; 2136 ; 440 ; 1644.	Local ...
753 Kuvale ; DGD. ; कुवले	E ; 23-0	6·9 ; 1784 ; 351 ; 1485.	Bidwadi 3-0
754 Kuve ; LNJ. ; कुवे	S ; 3-0	2·8 ; 1509 ; 295 ; 1306.	Lanje 3-0
755 Kuveśī Mauje ; RJP. ; कुवेशी मौजे	S ; 15-0	1·4 ; 1308 ; 293 ; 383.	Local ...
756 Lāḍaghar ; DPL. ; लाडघर	W ; 5-0	2·2 ; 1344 ; 290 ; 1223.	Local ...
757 Lājūḷ ; RTN. ; लाजूळ	E ; 15-0	3·2 ; 1206 ; 247 ; 1149.	Wandri 2-4
758 Lañje ; LNJ. ; लांजें	HQ ; ...	7·3 ; 3533 ; 654 ; 2598.	Local ...
759 Lāṭavaṇ ; MDG. ; लाटवण	SE ; 10-4	2·8 ; 1939 ; 409 ; 1638.	Local ...
760 Lāvagaṇ ; LNJ. ; लावगण	W ; 15-0	1·8 ; 416 ; 97 ; 292.	Satavli 4-0
761 Lavel ; KD. ; लवेल	S ; 10-0	2·9 ; 1088 ; 200 ; 923.	Local ...
762 Loṇavaḍī ; DPL. ; लोणवडी	NW ; 18-0	0·6 ; 208 ; 52 ; 97.	Ade 2-4
763 Lore ; KVL. ; लोरे	NE ; 12-0	4·7 ; 1386 ; 267 ; 1271.	Ghonsari 2-4
764 Loṭe ; KD. ; लोटे	S ; 12-0	2·8 ; 856 ; 173 ; 797.	Lavel 4-0
765 Lovaḷe ; SGR लोवळे	S ; 9-0	2·2 ; 959 ; 186 ; 951.	Sangameshwar. 9-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Port; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad 83-0	....	Guhagar 16-0	Dabhol 25-0	w.; pit	Sl (pr).; 4 tl.
Karad ...	....	Chiplun ...	... ...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; 3 tl.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur 75-0	Tale Bazar Thu. 12-0	Deogad 19-0	... ...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; Cs (mp).; 4 tl.; lib.
Kolhapur 83-0	Lanje Tue. 3-0	Local ...	Ratnagiri 29-0	w.	2 Sl (pr).; pyt.; Mg. Sud. 4.; 3 tl.; lib.; 2 dp.
Kolhapur 108-0	Rajapur Wed. 12-0	... ...	Musakaji 7-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; 2 tl.
Karad 113-0	Camp-Dapoli ... 4-0	Karajgaon 4-0	Harnai 6-0	w.; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Shri Narayan Fr. Srn. Vad. 8.; 5 tl.; lib.; Datta Jayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.; Tamastirth.
Kolhapur 98-0	Phungus Tue. 7-0	... ...	Ratnagiri 15-0	w.; n.	2 Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.
Kolhapur 80-0	Local Tue. ...	Local ...	Ratnagiri 28-0	w.; t.	5 Sl (4 pr. m).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 11 tl.; M; 2 mq.; dg.; dh.; lib.; dp.
Mumbra 110-0	Mhapral Fri. 10-0	... ...	Mhapral 20-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 7 tl.; mq.; dg.; lib.
Kolhapur 94-0	Lanja Tue. 16-0	Lanja 18-0	Ranpar 9-0	cl.	Sl (pr).; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9.; tl.
Karad 74-0	Khed ... 7-0	Local ...	... ...	w.	Sl (pr).; 5 tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Karad 118-4	Ade ... 2-4	... ...	Harnai 6-0	w.; rv.	tl.
Kolhapur 55-0	Phonda Mon. 3-0	Phonda 3-0	Deogad 38-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.; Chawa's Fr. on any Mon. of the month of Mg. every three years.
Karad 67-0	Chiplun ... 12-0	Local ...	... ...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; 3 tl.
Kolhapur 71-0	Sangameshwar Wed. 9-0	... 1-0	... ...	rsr.; rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
766 Mābhaḷe ; SGR. ; मामळे.	NW 10-0	2·7 ; 1067 ; 186 ; 936.	Sangameshwar. 10-0
767 Mācāḷ ; LNJ. ; माचाळ.	E ; 21-0	2·8 ; 302 ; 66 ; 301.	Shiposhi 7-0
768 Māḍaban ; RJP. ; माडबन.	W ; 18-0	3·8 ; 1208 ; 287 ; 419.	Mithgavne 1-4
769 Maḍhāḷ ; GHR. ; मढाळ.	SW ; 13-06	2·2 ; 639 ; 141 ; 525.	Ginvi 5-0
770 Māḍakhol ; SWT. ; माडखोल.	E ; 4-0	7·5 ; 2040 ; 407 ; 1617.	Danoli 4-0
771 Maḍure ; SWT. ; मडुरे.	S ; 12-0	3·7 ; 1312 ; 264 ; 1094.	Local ...
772 Mahāḷuṅge ; RJP. ; महाळुंगे.	S ; 17-0	3·1 ; 615 ; 119 ; 605.	Dongar 4-0
773 Mahāḷuṅge ; DPL. ; महाळुंगे	E ; 6-4	2·3 ; 688 ; 146 ; 651.	Camp-Dapoli 7-0
774 Mahāḷuṅge ; KD. ; महाळुंगे.	E ; 11-0	1·4 ; 326 ; 74 ; 283.	Local ..
775 Mahāḷuṅge ; DGD. ; महाळुंगे.	NE ; 22-0	5·4 ; 844 ; 167 ; 833.	Phanasgaon 4-0
776 Māhū ; MDG. ; माहू	S ; 2-0	1·9 , 445 ; 100 ; 428.	Mandangad 2-0
777 Māiṇ ; KVL. ; माईण	S ; 7-0	3·1 ; 682 ; 136 ; 649.	Taradale 3-2
778 Mājaḷ ; LNJ. ; माजळ	W ; 4-0	3·1 ; 578 ; 119 ; 535.	Lanje 6-0
779 Mājagāṅv ; SWT. ; माजगांव.	W ; 1-0	3·7 ; 2750 ; 769 ; 1306.	Kalne 4-0
780 Mājagāṅv ; RTN. ; माजगांव.	N 6-0 ..	4·0 ; 680 ; 175 ; 209.	Basani 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	71-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	10-0	...	0-1	w. ; str.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	55-0	Lanje	Tue.	15-0	Shiposhi	7-0	t.	Muchakund Rishi Fr. Mg. Vad. 30. ; tl. ; M.
					Ratnagiri	38-0		
Kolhapur	94-0	Rajapur	Wed.	21-0	...	...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Ps. Sud. 15. ; tl.
					Musakaji	9-0		
Karad	78-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	14-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Dabhol	21-0		
Belgaum	56-0	Danoli	Sun.	4-0	Sawantwadi	6-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr).a ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Khalnath Parnai Fr. Kt. Vad. 11. ; tl.
					Vengurla	20-0		
Belgaum	71-0	Banda	Mon.	3-0	Banda	4-0	w.	2 Sl (pr). ; Cs (mp). ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Vad. 2. ; 6 tl. ; Shri Dev Khalanath Fr. Mrg. Vad. 10.
					Vengurla	16-0		
Kolhapur	97-0	Rajapur	Wed.	7-0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 3 tl.
					Musakaji	16-0		
Karad	112-0	Palgad	...	4-0	Palgad	3-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl. ; M.
					Harnai	16 0		
Karad	94-0	Khed	...	16-0	Khed	14-0	rv.	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	75-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	5-0	Deogad	22-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 4 tl.
					...	...		
Mumbra	115-0	Mhapral	Fri.	12-0	Dapoli	20-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl. ; Mandengad Fort.
					Mhapral	13-0		
Kolhapur	61-0	Kankavli	Tue.	7-4	Nandgaon	5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
					Deogad	25-0		
Kolhapur	86-0	Lanje	Tue.	6-0	Lanje	4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
					Ratnagiri	32-0		
Belgaum	80-0	Banda	Mon.	6-0	Sawantwadi	2-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs (fmg). ; Shri Dev Ling Fr. Kt. Vad. 1. ; 3 tl. ; lib. ; Cch.
					Vengurla	24-0		
Kolhapur	88-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	4-0	Local	...	w.	2 Sl (pr, tech). mq.
					Ratnagiri	6-0		

Serial No. : Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
781 Mājagānv ; SWT. ; माजगांव	N ; 11-0	1·9 ; 377 ; 72 ; 201.	Kalne 4-0
782 Majare Goval ; CLN. ; मजरे गोवळ	N ; 30-0	1·3 ; 143 ; 29 ; 138.	Kutre 4-0
783 Majare Juve ; RJP. ; मजरे जुवे	W ; 12-0	0·2 ; Deserted ...	... ...
784 Majare Kāśī ; CLN. ; मजरे काशी	NW ; 3-0	0·1 ; 281 ; 51 ; 200.	Chiplun 2-0
785 Mājare ; SGR. ; माजरे	NW ; 23-0	3·5 ; 854 ; 175 ; 684.	Phungus 6-0
786 Majare § Kondhar ; CLN. ; मजरे कोंढर	... ...	1·3 ; 270 ; 60 ; 206.	Chiveli 3-0
787 Majare-Niośī ; LNJ. ; मजरे निओशी	S ; 6-0	1·0 ; 231 ; 44 ; 209.	Lanje 5-0
788 Mākhajan ; SGR. ; माखजन	NW ; 38-0	1·0 ; 2278 ; 490 ; 664.	Local ...
789 Māladī ; MVN. ; मालडी	NE ; 22-0	0·4 ; 396 ; 96 ; 173.	Shruwan 2-0
790 Māladolī ; CLN. ; मालदोली	W ; 13-0	2·9 ; 1236 ; 280 ; 687.	Nivli 2-0
791 Māļagānv ; SWT. ; माळगांव.	W ; 3-0	6·9 ; 3190 ; 610 ; 2160.	Local ...
792 Mālagānv ; MVN. ; माळगांव	NW ; 13-0	4·5 ; 1456 ; 311 ; 1043.	Bidwadi 2-4
793 Māļaguṇḍ ; RTN. ; माळगुंड	N ; 30-0	6·0 ; 3312 ; 682 ; 1373.	Local ...

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day, Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	80·0	Banda	Mon.	6-0	Banda	5 4	n.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; tl.
					Vengurla	16-0		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	26-0	w.	....
					...	...		
...	...	Deserted	...	...	...	...	..	....
Karad	60 0	......	...	...	Chiplun	3-0	w.	tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	100·0	Davkhol	Sun.	3-0	Kurdhunda	10·0	rsr. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs. ; Phg. Sud. 13 and Kt. Sud. 11 (Vithoba). ; 3 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	10-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud 15. ; tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	80·0	Lanje	Tue.	5-0	Lanje	6-0	n. ; cl.	2 tl.
					Ratnagiri	34-0		
Kolhapur	88·0	Bazar	Sat.	...	Local	...	w. ; t. ; pl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Cs. ; 6 tl. ; mq. 4 dg. ; dh. ; lib.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	74·0	Local	Sun.	...	Adivali	1-4	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Bhavai Fr. Asd. Vad. 15. ; 3 tl. ; ch.
					Malvan	12-0		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	12-0	w. ; n.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 4 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
					...	...		
Belgaum	65·0	Sawantwadi	Tue.	3-0	Sawantwadi	3-4	w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m). ; 2 Cs (Img, mp). ; Bhutnath Fr. Ct. Sud. 5. ; 4 tl. ; M. ; gym.
					Vengurla	14-0		
Kolhapur	90·0	Virun	Wed.	3-0	Local	...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; Kt Vad. 8. ; Mrg. Vad 3. ; 3 tl. ch.
					Malvan	11-0		
Kolhapur	98·0	Phungus	Tue.	18-0	Local	...	w. ; cl. ; rv.	6 Sl (5 pr, h). ; pyt. ; Cs. ; Shri Ganapati Fr. Mg. Vad. 4. ; 10 tl. ch. ; lib. ; 2 dp.; Ganapati Temple. ; Domed Temple.
					Tivari	3-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households , Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
794 Mālavaṇ ; MLV. ; मालवण.	HQ : ...	16·9 ;29851 692 ; 5276.	Local ...
795 Maḷaṇ ; GHR. ; मळण.	S : 8–0	3·4 ; 1153 ; 238 ; 932.	Welamb 2–0
796 Māḷavi ; DPL. ; माळवी	NW ; 18–0	1·6 ; 352 ; 86 ; 247.	Ade 3–0
797 Maḷe ; DPL. ; मळे.	S ; 12–0	2·7 ; 454 ; 132 ; 177.	Dabhol 6–0
798 Mālonḍ ; MLV. ; मालोंड.	E ; 15 0	21·7 ; 1246 ; 243 ; 852.	Poip 2–4
799 Maṇace Mauje DGD. ; मणचे मौजे.	NE ; 18–0	3·5 ; 1635 ; 342 ; 1311.	Mutat 6–0
800 Māṇagāṅv ; KDL. ; माणगांव.	E ; 7–0	7·5 ;3545 ; 625 ; 2769.	Local ...
801 Manḍakī ; CLN. ; मांडकी.	SW ; 12–1	3·9 ; 1467 ; 275 ; 1424.	Nivli 3–0
802 Mānḍakuli ; KDL. ; मांडकुली.	E ; 3–0	1·5 ; 1065 ; 212 ; 986.	Kudal 3–0
803 Manḍaṇagaḍ ; MDG. ; मांडणगड.	W ; 1–0	0·5 , Deserted ...	....
804 Mānḍavakhari ; CLN. ; मांडवखरी.	S ; 6–0	0·2 ; 94 ; 33 ; 93.	Kanhe 1–0
805 Māndivali ; DPL. ; मांदिवली.	N ; 24–0	2·0 ; 1073 ; 240 ; 552	Kelshi 6·0
806 Mānḍave ; KD. ; मांडवे	E ; 14–0	2·9 ; 897 ; 181 ; 842.	Tale 6–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	90·0	Hadi	Sat.	6·0	Local	...	w.	32 Sl (26 pr, 3 m, 3 h).; Mun.; 7 Cs (2cr, 2 con, 3 mis).; 25 tl.; 4M.; mq.; dg.; 2 dh.; ch.; lib.; 12 dp.; 4 Cch.; Shri Dev Narayan Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; Shri Dev Giroba Fr. Kt. Vad. 3.; Shri Dev Bhutnath's Fr. Mrg. Vad. 11.; Shri Dev Ghumadaji Fr. Mrg. Vad. 8.; Shri Dev Vithoba Fr. Mrg. Vad. 8.; Sindhudurg Fort.; Mosques.; Shivaji Temple.
					Local	...		
Karad	85·0	......	...	...	Guhagar	8·0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	16·0		
Karad	116·0	Ade	...	3·0	Harnai	5·0	w.	2 tl.
					Harnai	5·0		
Karad	113·0	Dabhol	...	6·0	Dabhol	3·0	w., cl.; pit.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	7·0		
Kolhapur	100·0	Masade	Wed.	2·4	Masade	2·4	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Dahikala Fr. Kt. Sud 6.; Kt. Vad. 13.; 5 tl.; mq 9.
					Malvan	16·0		
Kolhapur	85·0	Kharepatan	Tue.	12·0	Vijaydurg	20·0	w.; cl.	3 Sl (3 pr)., pyt.; 6 tl.; mq. dg.; dh.
					...	...		
Belgaum	64·0	Local	Tue.	...	Local	...	w.	4 Sl (2 pr, 2m)., pyt.; Cs (mp).: Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9., 9 tl.; M.; 5 dp.; Cch.; Yakshini Fr. Kt. Sud. 5.
					Vengurla	15·0		
Karad	...	......	..	.	Chiplun	13·0	w.; t.; rv.	Sl (m).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Vad. 1.; 4 tl.
					..	...		
Belgaum	74·0	Kudal	Wed.	3·0	Bibavne	1·0	w.	Sl (pr).; Shri Dev Ling Fr. Kt. Sud. 9.; tl.
					Vengurla	16·0		
...	...	Deserted	...	...	...	..	...	....
					..	...		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	6·0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					...	...		
Karad	118·0	Kelshi	...	6·0	Ilamai	11·0	w. rv. cl.	2 Sl (2 pr); pyt; 4 tl.; mq.; 2 dg.; dp.
					Harnai	11·0		
Karad	105·0	Khed	...	15·0	Khed	18·0	w.	Sl (pr).; 8 tl; dp; Shri Dev Bahiri Jogeshwari Fr. Ct. Vad. 7
					..	...		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural ; population.	Post Office ; Distance.
807 Mandarul ; RJP. ; मंदरुळ	N ; 11-0	3·3 ; 647 ; 124 ; 578.	Oni 2-0
808 Maneri ; SWT. ; मणेरी	E ; 21-0	3·6 ; 1189 ; 247 ; 799.	Dodamarga 2-0
809 Māṇi ; KD. ; माणी	SE ; 12-0	1·4 ; 553 ; 108 ; 504.	Lavel 2-0
810 Māṅgeli ; SWT. ; मांगेली	NE ; 38-0	8·7 ; 901 ; 216 ; 901.	Bhedshi 6-0
811 Manjutri ; CLN. ; मंजूत्री	S ; 23-0	1·0 ; 81 ; 17 ; 69.	Nirli 3-0
812 Māraḷ ; SGR. ; मारळ	E ; 10-0	5·8 ; 763 ; 155 . 762.	Deorukh 9
813 Mārgatāmhāṇe ; CLN. ; मार्ग ताम्हाणे.	W ; 12-0	3·5 ; 1041 ; 208 ; 685.	Local ..
814 Masade ; MLV. ; मसदे	E ; 13-0	1·3 ; 711 ; 123 ; 367.	Poip 1-6
815 Māsaraṅg ; SGR. ; मासरंग	N ; 20-0	2·1 ; 470 ; 81 401	Kadavi 4
816 Māsū ; GHR. ; मासू	S ; 16-0	3·5 ; 933 ; 202 ; 919	Narwan 9-0
817 Masure ; MLV. ; मसुरे	S ; 10-0	14·7 ; 9255 ; 2011 ; 4993	Local ...
818 Mātoṇḍ ; VGR. ; मातोंड	S ; 8-0	8·9 ; 3719 ; 768 ; 3086	Local ...

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port: Distance		Drinking water facilities	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	74·0	Lanje	Tue.	12·0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
					Musakaji	26·0		
Belgaum	89·0	Banda	Mon.	13·0	Banda	13·4	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	41·0		
Karad	74·0	Khed	...	5·0	Ainavre	3·0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; Kalkai Fr. Ct. Sud. 10. ; once in 3 years ; 4 tl. ;
					...	...		
Belgaum	94·0	Kankumbi	Fri.	4·0	Konalkatta	32·0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Fr. once in a year in the month of Kt. Mrg. or Ps. ; tl.
					Vengurla	47·0		
...	...							
...	...							
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	22-0	w.	Sl (pr). ;
					...	...		
Kolhapur	53	Deorukh	Sun.	9	Deorukh	9-0	w.	Sl (pr). , 3 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	14-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs (mp). ; 2 tl. ; lib. ; dp.
Kolhapur	94-0	Local	Wed.	...	Local	...	t. ; w. ; str.	Sl (pr). ; Dahikala Fr. ; Mrg. ; 6 tl. ; dh.
					Malvan	14-0		
Kolhapur	8·0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	8	...	5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					..	...		
Karad	92-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	19-0	w. ; pit	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	27-0		
Kolhapur	102-0	Local	Thu.	...	Local	...	w.	16 Sl (15 prh.) ; pyt. ; Cs (th). ; Angne wad Fr. : day not fixed. Bilwas Fr. : day not fixed. Deulwada Fr : Kt. Sud. 15. Marde Fr : Mrg. Sud. 11. ; Khajanwad Fr. Mrg. Vad 9. ; 14 tl. 2M. ; mq. ; dg. ; 2dh. ; lib. ; 2dp. ; 1 Cch.
					Malvan	12-0		
Belgaum	77-0	Hodavde	Tue.	0-4	Vengurla	7-0	w. ; rv. ; n.	4 Sl (4 pr) . pyt. ; Shri Devi Sateri Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 7 tl. ; 2 lib.
					Vengurla	10-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office, Distance.
819 Māṭaṇe ; SWT. ; माटणे	... 23-0	2·5 ; 840 ; 192 ; 648.	Kasai 5-0
820 Māṭavaṇ ; DPL. ; माटवण	N ; 9-0	2·9 ; 1103 ; 242 ; 643.	Kudawale 4-0
821 Maṭh ; LNJ. ; मठ	N ; 9-0	2·6 ; 1163 ; 236; 1099.	Pali 3-0
822 Maṭh Kh. ; KVL. ; मठ खुर्द	N ; 12-0	0·4 ; 152 ; 60 ; 127.	Phonda 5-0
823 Maṭh Bk. ; MLV. ; मठ बु.	NE ; 22-0	6·0 ; 1077 ; 192 ; 936.	Bidwadi 7-0
824 Maṭh Kh. ; RJP. ; मठ खुर्द	E ; 20-0	0·8 ; 219 ; 44 ; 218.	Kelavli 2-0
825 Maṭh ; VGR. ; मठ	E ; 3-0	5·2 ; 2408 ; 466 ; 1129.	Local 9 ...
826 Maṭh Dhāmāpūr ; SGR. ; मठ धामापुर	SE ; 7-0	4·3 ; 51 ; 9 ; 51.	Ambav 3
827 Mātheguiar ; DPL. ; माथगुजर	S ; 10-0	1·3 ; 235 ; 47; 176.	Camp-Dapoli 10-0
828 Māvalṅage ; RTN. ; मावळंगे	S ; 18-0	4·4 ; 933 ; 162 ; 777.	Purnagad 3-0
829 Māvalṅage ; SGR. ; मावळंगे	NW ; 30	1·5 ; 501 ; 106 ; 498	Makhjan 1
830 Meḍhe Tarf Devale ; SGR. ; मेढे तर्फ देवळे	E ; 20-0	1·6 , 257 ; 43 ; 246.	Sakharpa 2
831 Meghī ; SGR. ; मेघी	SW ; 5-0	3·3 ; 982 ; 178 ; 769.	Devle 2
832 Meghi ; SGR. ; मेघी	SW ; 5 0	3·3 982 ; 178 ; 769	Devle 2
833 Mervī ; RTN. ; मेर्वी	S ; 12-0	7·0 ; 2798 ; 492 ; 777	Local ..

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	93-0	Dicholi	Wed.	6-0	Dodamarga.	6-0	w.	Sl (m). ; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	47-0		
Karad	110-0	Local	...	...	Palgad	5-0	w.; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 9 tl. lib. ; dp.
					Harnai	16-0		
Kolhapur	72-0	Harcheri	Mon.	7-0	Pali	2-0	w ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (cr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 7 tl. ; M., dh.
					Ratnagiri	16-0		
Kolhapur	53-0	Phonda	Mon.	5-0	Nandgaon	1-0	w.	tl.
					Deogad	27-0		
Kolhapur	72-0	Chindar	Fri.	7-0	Ramgad	5-0	w. ; spr.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp.). Dahikala Fr. 6 tl; M.
					Achare	12-0		
Kolhapur	60-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6 0	Kharepatan	7-0	rv.	tl.
					Musakaji	35-0		
Belgaum	75-0	Vengurla	Mon.	3-0	Vengurla	5 0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (th). ; Shri Dev Swayambhu Fr. Kt. Vad. 3. Shri Devi Sateri Fr. Kt. Vad. 6. Shri Khalnath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 3. 3 tl. ; dh. ; 3 dp.
					Vengurla	5-0		
Kolhapur	60	Deorukh	Sun.	5	..	3-0	rv.	Makar Sankrant. (14 January).
Karad	112-0	Camp-dapoli		10-0	.	...	rv. ; cl.	tl.
					Dabhol	11-0		
Kolhapur	96-0	Pawas	Daily	4-0	Ratnagiri	18-0	w. cl. :	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl. ; dh. ; dp.
					Ranpar	6-0		
Kolhapur	89	Makhjan	Sat.	1	Makhjan	2-0	w. ; t. ; rsr	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	53	Devle	Sun.	4	Sakharpa	2-0	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; Holi Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud 15. ; tl.
Kolhapur	56	Devle	Sun.	2	..	4 0	w.	Sl. (pr.) ; tl.
Kolhapur	56	Devle	Sun.	2	...	4 0	w.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Kolhapur	96-0	Pawas	Daily	4-0	...	...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). , pyt. ; Navalai Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. Datta jayanti; Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15 ; 5 tl. ; mq. ; dh. ; dp.
					Purnagad	1-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
834 Meṭe ; KD. ; मेटे	S ; 10–0	2·4 ; 580 ; 134 ; 453	Anjani 2–0
835 Mhāmūravāḍi ; RTN. ; म्हामूरवाडी	N ; 7–0	0·1 ; 362 ; 86 ; 11.	Basani 21–0
836 Mhāpaṇ ; VGR. ; म्हापण	S ; 9–0	5·7 ; 2498 ; 438 ; 1753.	Local ...
837 Mhāpral ; MDG. ; म्हाप्रळ	N ; ... 10–0	2·7 ; 2820 ; 684 ; 2155	Local ... ...
838 Miḷand ; RJP. ; मिळंद	SE ; 26–0	5·1 ; 863 ; 136 ; 875.	Kharepatan 12–0
839 Mirajoḷe ; RTN. ; मिरजोळे	SE ; 4–0	4·4 ; 1342 ; 266 ; 1305.	Shirgaon 4–0
840 Mirajoḷī (non-municipal area) ; CLN. मिरजोळी	W ; 4–0	2·2 ; 1076 ; 214 ; 955.	Rampur 3–0
841 Miravaṇe ; CLN. ; मिरवणे	NE ; 14–0	1·5 ; 569 ; 99 ; 502.	Rampur 3–0
842 Mirle ; KD. ; मिर्ले	E ; 15–0	1·9 ; 449 ; 93 ; 354.	Khopi 2–0
843 Miryā ; RTN. ; मिर्या	NW ; 4–0	2·8 ; 2936 ; 605 ; 187 ;	Local .
844 Miṭhabāṅv ; DGD. ; मिठबांव	S ; 10–0	6·3 ; 5440 ; 1155 ; 3261.	Local ...
845 Miṭhagavāṇe ; RJP. ; मिठगवाण	W ; 16–0	4·0 ; 1761 ; 369 ; 943.	Local ..
846 Miṭh Mumbarī ; DGD. ; मिठमुंबरी	S ; 2–4	0·9 ; 1015 ; 192 ; 654.	Dabhole 3–0
847 Mogare ; RJP. ; मोगरे	W ; 13–0	2·9 ; 600 ; 139 ; 510.	Wadanavedar 6–0
848 Mohāne ; KD. ; मोहाने	E ; 7–0	1·8 , 645 ; 121 ; 495.	Mahalunge 2–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand: Distance. / Port: Distance.	Drinking water facilities;	Institutions and other information.
Karad 72-0	Khed 11-0	Lavel 3-4	w.; cl.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 4 tl.; mq.
Kolhapur 88-0	Ratnagiri Daily 4-0	.. 0-4 Ratnagiri 6-0	w.	Sl (pr.),; mq.
Belgaum 85-0	Parule Fri. 5-0	Kudal 11-0 Vengurla 10-0	w.; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Cs. (mp); Shri Dev. Khavaneshwar Fr. Kt. Vad. 14 Shri Devi Shanta Durga Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 5 tl.; ch.
Mumbra 120-0	Local Fri. ...	Local ..	w.; pl.	4 Sl (4 pr); Cs.; Ur. in the month of Dec., Narayan Buwa's Fr. Mrg. Vad. 4.; 4 tl.; M.; Mq.; 7dg.; dh.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Kolhapur 48-0	Kharepatan Tue. 12-0	Musakaji 38-0	w.	Sl (pr.) Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud 15.; 3 tl.
Kolhapur 87-0	Ratnagiri Daily. 4-0	Ratnagiri 4-0 Ratnagiri 7-0	cl.; w.	Cs (mp).; 3 tl.
Karad ...	....	Chiplun; 2-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 5 tl.; mq.; 3 dg.; dh.; 4 gym.
Karad ...	....	Chiplun 12-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; 3 tl.
Karad 76-0	Khed 12-0; ..	Local	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).
Kolhapur 87-0	Ratnagiri Daily 3-0;	Local ... Local (in rainy season).	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 6 tl.; 2 dh.
Kolhapur 60-0	Local Sat ...	Local	w.	7 Sl. (5 pr., m, h).; pvt.; Cs (mp).; 6 tl.; ch.; 3 lib.; 2dp.; Salt-pans.; (2) Silicon ores.
Kolhapur 95-0	Rajapur Wed. 20-0;	... ... Musakaji 7-0	w.	2Sl. (2pr.).; pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 3tl.; dh.; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.
Kolhapur 80-0	Deogad Fri. 3-0	Deogad 3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Kolhapur 95-0	Rajapur Wed. 15-0	Rajapur 13-0 Musakaji 5-0	cl.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (fmg).; tl.; dp.
Karad 96-0	Khed ... 7-0	Khed 8-0	w.; rv.	2Sl (pr., m).; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 3tl.; dg.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
849 Mond ; DGD. ; मोंड	W ; 9-0	7·5 ; 2898 ; 616 ; 2241.	Local ...
850 Moragānv ; SWT. ; मोरगांव	N ; 11-4	3·1 ; 730 ; 168 ; 342.	Kalne 4-0
851 Moravande ; KD. ; मोरवंडे	SE ; 3-0	1·6 ; 763 ; 143 ; 752.	Shiv Bk. 3-0
852 Moravane ; CLN. ; मोरवणे	NE ; 7-0	4·6 ; 1665 ; 327 ; 890.	Local ...
853 Morde ; SGR. ; मोर्डे	S ; 6-0	3·4 ; 1220 ; 214 ; 1054.	Deorukh 7-0
854 Moor ; RJP. ; मूर	E ; 23-0	5·8 ; 1459 ; 276 ; 1441.	Kharepatan 15-0
855 More ; KDL. ; मोरे	E ; 19-0	3·7 ; 170 ; 38 ; 169.	Mangaon 6-0
856 Morośī ; RJP. ; मोरोशी	E ; 20-0	3·2 ; 887 ; 166 ; 870.	Kelavli 2-0
857 Mosam ; RJP. ; मोसम	SE ; 14-0	4·1 ; 852 ; 153 ; 851.	Kelavli 1-0
858 Mūgīj ; DPL. ; मूगीज	N ; 18-0	1·6 ; 853 ; 177 ; 541.	Palgad 5-0
859 Mūlade ; KDL. ; मुळदे	E ; 2-0	1·7 ; 621 ; 117 ; 503.	Kudal 2-0
860 Mumbake ; KD. ; मुंबके	SW ; 3-0	0·7 ; 760 ; 142 ; 416.	Local ...
861 Munage ; DGD. ; मुणगे	S ; 23-0	7·7 ; 2728 ; 321 ; 1294.	Local ...
862 Mundhar ; GHR. ; मुंढर	NE ; 11-0	4·8 ; 1346 ; 267 ; 1247.	Gimvi 2-0
863 Mundhe Tarf Cipalūn ; CLN ; मुंढे तर्फ चिपळूण	E ; 9-0	3·2 ; 896 ; 171 ; 854.	Shirgaon 5-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	76-0	Tale Bazar	Thurs.	4-0	Deogad ...	11-0 ...	w.	5 Sl (5pr).; 6tl.; 2mg.; ch.; lib; 2dp.
Belgaum	70-0	Banda	Mon.	5-0	Banda Vengurla	5-0 24-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. in Ps.; 2tl.
Karad	79-0	Khed	...	3-0	Local	...	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	12-0 ...	w.	4Sl (3pr, m).; pyt.; 4tl.
Kolhapur	54-0	Sakhedipur	Sat.	2-0	... ...	1-4 ...	w.; t.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Kolhapur	50-0	Pachal	Sun.	4-0	Kharepatan Musakaji	15-0 38-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; 3tl.; mq.
Belgaum	70-0	Mangaon	Tue.	6-0	Wados Vengurla	1-0 19-0	w.; p.	Sl (pr).; Shri Devi Sateri Fr. Mrg. Sud. 6.; 3tl.
Kolhapur	60-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	7-0	Kharepatan Musakaji	7-0 34-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	70-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	3-0	... Musakaji	... 28-0	w.; o.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; mq.
Karad	118-0	Palgad	...	5-0	Palgad Harnai	2-0 27-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Muralidhar Fr. Ct. Vad. 1.; 5tl.; mq.; dg.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	2-0	Kudal Vengurla	3-0 17-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Shri Dev Ling Fr., Kt. Sud. 12.; tl.
Karad	89-0	Khed	...	4-0	... Khed	... 6-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 2tl.; mq.; dg.
Kolhapur	94-0	Mithbaon	Sat.	4-0	Mithbaon ...	5-0 ...	w.; cl.; rv.	6Sl (6pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 4tl.; 2dp.; Shri Devi Bhagavati Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1.
Karad	88-0	......	..	.	Guhagar Dabhol	10-0 21-0	w.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 3tl.; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 30.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	10-0 ...	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 12tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
864 Muṇdhe Tarf Sāvarḍe CLN. मुंढे तर्फ सावर्डे	S ; 19-0	6·3 ; 711 ; 152 ; 616.	Nandgaon 5-0
865 Muraḍe ; KD. ; मुरडे	N ; 4-0	2·9 ; 1136 ; 235 ; 867.	Local ...
866 Murādapūr ; SGR. ; मुरादपूर	E ; 1-0	2·1 ; 484 ; 96 ; 420.	Deorukh 2-0
867 Murādapūr ; SGR. ; मुरादपूर	E ; 1-0	2·1 ; 484 ; 96 ; 420.	Deorukh 2-0
868 Muraḍūva ; SGR. ; मुरडूव	N ; 24-04	3·1 ; 1346 ; 227 ; 1155.	Asavali ...
869 Muratavaḍe ; CLN. ; मुरतवडे	W ; 25-0	6·2 ; 1462 ; 304 ; 1432.	Nivli 8-0
870 Murḍī ; DPL. ; मुर्डी	N ; 13-0	1·6 ; 619 ; 135 ; 391.	Anjarle 3-0
871 Murśi ; SGR. ; मुर्शी	SE ; 14-0	5·2 ; 973 ; 187 ; 901.	Sakharpa 3-0
872 Muruḍ ; DPL. ; मुरुड	W ; 6-0	1·8 ; 1835 ; 383 ; 1001.	Local ..
873 Musāḍ ; KD. ; मुसाड	SE ; 27-0	0·9 ; 1264 ; 256 ; 1228.	Marchane 3-0
874 Musaloṇḍī ; GHR. ; मुसलोंडी	NW ; 16-0	0·9 , 274 , 62 ; 266.	Narwan 2-0
875 Muṭāṭ ; DGD. ; मौजे मुटाट	N ; 16-0	8·2 ; 2017 ; 420 ; 1573.	Local ...
876 Nāda ; DGD. ; नाद	SW ; 21-0	4·1 ; 901 ; 164 ; 901.	Phanas gaon 3-0
877 Naḍagive ; KVL. ; नडगिवे	N ; 30-0	3·7 ; 1434 ; 272 ; 1382.	Local ...
878 Nāḍaṇ ; DGD. ; नाडण	NE ; 8-0	6·5 ; 1629 ; 330 ; 1099.	Wade 1-4

Railway St. ; Distance		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance			Motor Stand ; Distance. Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	18-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr). ; 4tl. ; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14. ;
Karad	85-0	Khed	...	3-0	Khed ...	3-4 ...	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs. ; 3 tl. ; mq. ; dg ; lib.
Kolhapur	59-0	Deorukh	Sun.	2-0	Deorukh ...	0-1 ...	rv. ; w.	Cs(c). ; 3tl. ; mq.
Kolhapur	59-0	Deorukh	Sun.	2-0	Deorukh	0-1	rv. ; w.	Cs(c). ; 3tl. ; mq.
Kolhapur	85-0	Makhjan	Sat.	7-0	... ...	7-0 ...	w.	2Sl (2pr). ; 3tl.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	24-0 ...	w. ; n.	2Sl (2pr). ; 4tl. ; dp.
Karad	114-0	Anjarle	...	3-0	Harnai Harnai	6-0 6-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3tl. ; lib. ; dp.
Kolhapur	48	Sakharpa	Sat.	3	... ...	1-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
Karad	106-0	Local	...	...	Harnai Harnai	4-0 5-0	w ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Laxmi Narayan Fr. Kt. Sud 11 to 15 and Kt. Vad. 11 to 14. ; Shri Ram Fr Ct. Sud. 9. ; 16tl ; mq. ; dg. ; 5 dp.
Karad	70-0	Chiplun	...	12-0	Chiplun ..	12-0 ..	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; Devichi Jatra. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
Karad	192-0	......	...	...	Guhagar Jaigad	17-0 12-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Vaghambari. Fr. Mg. Vad. 3. . tl
Kolhapur	76-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	12-0	Vijaydurg ..	19-0 ...	w.	2 Sl (2pr). ; Cs (mp) ; 10 tl ; M. ; lib. ; dp.
Kolhapur	60-0	Talere	Tue.	5-0	Deogad ...	3-0 ..	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; 5 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	2-0	Kharepatan Vijaydurg	2-0 36-0	w.	Sl (pr). . Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	96-0	Padel	Wed.	4-0	Vijaydurg ...	20-0 ...	w.	2 Sl (2pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ;6 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name , Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural ; population.	Post Offices ; Distance.
879 Nāgāṇe ; CLN. ; नागाणे	E ; 9-0	0·4 , 164 ; 36 ; 147.	Nivli 3-0
880 Nāgave ; KVL. ; नागवे	NE ; 3-0	2·6 ; 1520 ; 304 ; 1176.	Harkul Kh. 3-0
881 Nākhare ; RTN. ; नाखरे	SE ; 14-0	8·7 ; 1741 ; 397 ; 1382.	Pawas 2-0
882 Nāṇār ; RJP. ; नाणार	S ; 12-0	6·6 ; 1222 ; 257 ; 789.	Local ...
883 Nānaṭe ; DPL. ; नानटे	S ; 7-0	2·5 ; 462 ; 120 ; 286.	Camp-Dapoli 8-0
884 Nārdagāṅv ; CLN. ; नारदगांव	S ; 18-0	4·8 ; 2014 ; 377 ; 1962.	Local ...
885 Nāṇdagāṅv ; KVL. ; नांदगांव	N ; 20-0	5·1 ; 2297 ; 473 ; 1930.	Local ...
886 Nāndagāṅv ; KD. ; नादगांव	E ; 3-0	3·0 ; 1062 ; 209 ; 831.	Mumbake 3-0
887 Nāndalaj ; SGR. ; नांदलज	W ; 5-0	2·3 ; 504 ; 1'0 ; 431·	Kosumb ...
888 Nāndivaḍe ; RTN. ; नांदिवडे	N ; 40-0	2·8 ; 1434 ; 316 ; 820.	Jaigad 1-4
889 Nāndivalī ; LNJ. ; नांदिवली	N ; 9-0	0·8 ; 296 ; 62 ; 242.	Nanij 3-0
890 Nāndivalī ; KD. ; नांदिवली	E ; 22-0	3·3 ; 715 ; 153 ; 673.	Mahalunge 6-0
891 Nāndivase ; CLN. ; नांदीवसे	E ; 18-0	11·2 ; 1394 ; 289 ; 1392·	Kalbasne 2-0
892 Nāndos ; MLV. ; नांदोस	N ; 15-0	3·3 ; 1663 ; 407 ; 1384.	Katta 3-0
893 Nānelī ; KDL. ; नानेली	E ; 10-0	1·9 ; 480 ; 113 ; 424.	Local ...

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	14-0 ...	rv.	2 tl.
Kolhapur	64-0	Kankavli	Tue.	3-0	Kankavli Deogad	3-0 46-0	w.	2 Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Gangoba Fr. Ct. Vad. 1.; 4 tl.; lib.
Kolhapur	96-0	Pawas	Daily	2-0	Ratnagiri Purnagad	14-0 6-0	w.; n.;	3 Sl (3pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 Shri Bhagawati Fr Ps. Sud. 15; 5 tl.; dp.
Kolhapur	91-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	12-0	... Musakaji	... 14-0	w.; n.	3 Sl (3pr).; pyt.; tl.; mq.; lib.
Karad	107-0	Camp Dapoli	...	8-0	Dabhol Dabhol	2-0 9-0	rv. · w.	Sl (pr).; 4 tl.; ch.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	17-0 ...	w.	3Sl (3pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	56-0	Local	Tue.	...	... Deogad	... 24-0	w.	3 Sl (3pr).; pyt.; 2 Cs (mp.; cr).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 5 tl.; 2 mq.; dg.
Karad	88-0	Khed	...	3-0	Khed ...	3-0 ...	w.	2 Sl (2pr).; Khema Fr. Phg.; tl.; mq; dg.
Kolhapur	68-0	Deorukh	Sun.	6-0	Sangameshwar ...	5-0 ...	w.; str.	Sl (pr); Cs (c).; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	104-0	Sitavde	Sat.	6-0	... Jaigad	1-4 4-0	w.	Sl (pr). Ramnavami Fr. Mg. Vad. 4 to Mg. Vad. 9. Karhateshwar Mandir Fr. Sm. St. Mon. *Light House*. Swavambhu Karhateshwar Mandir.; 9 tl.; mq.; dh
Kolhapur	70-0	Harcheri	Mon.	9-0	... Ratnagiri	5-0 17-0	w.; t.; cl.	4 tl.
Karad	102-0	Khed	...	15-0	Ambavli ...	10-0 ...	w., rv.	2 Sl (2pr).; 3 tl.
Karad	65-0	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	14-0 ...	w.; rv.	2 Sl (2pr).; 3tl.
Kolhapur	78-0	Katta	Fri.	1-0	Katta Malvan	1-0 13-0	w.	2 Sl (2pr).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.
Belgaum	67-0	Mangaon	Tue.	2-0	Mangaon Vengurla	1-0 17-0	w.; rv.	Sl (m).; 8 tl.; mq.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
894 Nāṇij ; RTN. ; नाणीज	E ; 20-0	3·9 ; 1361 ; 274 ; 658.	Local ...
895 Nānos ; SWT. ; नानोस	S ; 14-0	0·9 ; 465 ; 90 ; 408.	Aronda 2-4
896 Naraḍave ; KVL. ; नरडवे	SE ; 13-0	14·8 ; 3439 ; 592 ; 2249.	Natal 7-0
897 Nāradakheraki ; CLN. ; नारदखेरकी	S ; 14-0	1·7 ; 965 ; 176 ; 857.	Kalkaone 2-0
898 Nāraduve ; SGR. ; नारदुवे	W ; 32-4	1·4 ; 489 ; 103 ; 480.	Veer 5-0
899 Nāragoḷī ; MDG. ; नारगोळी	S ; 3-0	1·8 ; 463 ; 95 ; 437.	Palavni 5-0
900 Nārme ; RTN. ; नार्मे	E ; 15-0	2·4 ; 256 ; 65 ; 244.	Wandri 4-0
901 Nāraśinge ; RTN. ; नारशिंगे	E ; 26-0	1·0 ; 155 ; 39 ; 155.	Malgund 10-0
902 Naravaṇ ; GHR. ; नरवण	N ; 16-0	3·7 ; 1581 ; 322 ; 1235.	Local ...
903 Nāringre ; DGD. ; नारिंग्रे	S ; 24-0	6·4 ; 1609 ; 537 ; 948.	Local ..
904 Nārur K. Nārur ; KDL. ; नारुर क. नारुर	E ; 12-0	5·3 ; 412 ; 68 ; 396.	Mangaon 9-0
905 Nāṭal ; KVL. ; नाटळ	E ; 10-0	9·8 ; 3678 ; 705 ; 2731	Local ...
906 Nāṭe ; RJP. ; नाटे	W ; 17-4	8·2 ; 5668 ; 1187 ; 1099.	Jaitapur 2-0
907 Nātū Kasabā ; KD. ; नातू कसबा	N ; 10-0	2·8 ; 1039 ; 210 ; 935.	Khavati 0-6

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port : Distance		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	61-0	Sakharpa	Fri.	12-0	... ...	1·0 ...	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs. (cr); Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; dh.
Belgaum	78-0	Aronda	Sat.	2-4	Ajgaon Vengurla	2·0 14·0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Vetoba Fr. Kt. Sud. 14 and Mg. Vad. 11. ; 5 tl.
Kolhapur	75-0	Kankavli	Tue.	15-0	Kankavli Deogad	13·0 50·0	w. ; rv.	6 Sl (6 pr). ; pyt. ; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Vad. 1. ; 6 tl. ; lib. ; dp.
Karad	65-0	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	11·0 ...	w.	Sl (pr) ; 5 tl.
Kolhapur	91-0	Makhjan	Sat.	5-0	Makhjan ...	2·4 ...	rsr.	Sl (pr). ; Mg. Vad 4. Shri Deo Shankar. Fr. Mg. Sud. 15. Shri Devi Gramdevi. ; 2 tl.
Mumbra	120-0	Mhapral	Fri.	15-0	... Mhapral	... 13·0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	82-0	Phungus	Tue.	4-0	Local Ratnagiri	... 15·0	w. , n.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
Kolhapur	94-0	Phungus	Tue.	6-0	... Tivari	6·0 10·0	t. ; cl.	tl.
Karad	103-0	......	...	...	Guhagar Jaigad	16·0 12·0	w. ; cl. ; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; 6 tl. ; dp. ; Shimga. Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 15.
Kolhapur	76-0	Mithbaon	Sat.	12-0	Mithbaon ..	3·0 ..	...	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 8 tl. ; 2 dh. ; dp. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	12-0	Vados Vengurla	6·0 27·0	w. ; p.	Sl (pr). : Cs (mp). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. , ch. ; Khaparyachi Jatra after every three years in the month of May.
Kolhapur	72-0	Kanedi	Sun.	2-0	Kankavli Deogad	10·0 54·0	w. ; rv.	7 Sl (5 pr, 2 m). ; pyt. ; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Sud. 11. ; 4 tl. : M. ; dg ; Nam Saptah ; Mg. Sud. 7.
Kolhapur	107-0	Local	Fri.	...	Rajapur Musakaji	14·0 2·0	w. ; n.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs. ; Shri Deo Nateshwar Fr. Kt. Sud. 1 to 10. ; 6 tl. ; 2 mq. ; 7 dg. ; dh. ; ch.
Satara Road	60-0	Khed	...	8-0	Khed	8·0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 5 tl. , lib.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
908 Nātunde ; RTN. ; नातुंडे	S ; 18-0	0·1 ; 102 ; 21 ; 64.	Purnagad 3-0
909 Nāvadi ; SGR. ; नावडी	S ; 10-0	0·1 ; 1020 ; 172 ; 97.	Local ...
910 Navaśi ; DPL. ; नवशी	NE ; 7-0	1·7 ; 685 ; 134 ; 674.	Wakavli 3-0
911 Navedar ; RJP. ; नवेदर	W ; 14-0	1·8 ; 690 ; 164 ; 502.	Local ...
912 Nāyane ; MDG. ; नायणे	W ; 15-0	1·5 ; 211 ; 55 ; 203.	Mandangad 10-0
913 Nāyari ; SGR. ; नायरी	S ; 22-0	4·8 ; 1004 ; 195 ; 453.	Local ...
914 Nāyaśi ; CLN. ; नायशी	S ; 25-0	2·6 ; 1237 ; 238 ; 902.	Local ...
915 Nemale ; SWT. नेमळे	W ; 8-0	5·8 ; 1624 ; 369 ; 1237.	Zarap 6-0
916 Nerur Tarf Haveli ; KDL. ; नेरुर तर्फ हवेली	W ; 4-0	15·2 ; 7142 ; 1298 , 5216.	Local ...
917 Nerur K. Nerur ; KDL. ; नेरुर क. नेरुर	E ; 25-0	12·3 ; 858 ; 204 ; 709.	Dukanwad 3-0
918 Netarde ; SWT. ; नेतर्डे	N ; 13-0	2·5 ; 770 ; 172 ; 522.	Kalne 3-0
919 Nevali ; SWT. ; नेवळी	SE. ; 11-0	1·5 ; Deserted ...	....
920 Nevare ; RTN. ; नेवरे	N ; 30-0	7·1 ; 4184 ; 911 ; 2623.	Local ...
921 Nhāveli SWT. ; न्हावेली	S ; 7-0	4·2 ; 1076 ; 210 ; 859.	Malgaon 4-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	96-0	Pawas	Daily	4-0	Ratnagiri	18·0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Purnagad	4·0		
Kolhapur	97-0	Bazar	Wed.	...	Local	...	w. ; pl.	Cs. ; 4 tl. ; dh.
					..	..		
Karad	93-0	Wakaoli	...	3-0	Dapoli	6·0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Harnai	15·0		
Kolhapur	96-0	Lanje	Tue.	18-0	...	14·0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl. ; dp.
					Musalaji	12·0		
Mumbra	120-0	Panderi	Thu.	9-0	..	...	t.	tl.
					Mhapral	10·0		
Kolhapur	83-0	Bazar	Wed.	...	...	12·0	rv. ; w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; tl. ; mq. ; dg. ; lib. ; dp.
					...	...		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	18·0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (pr. h.) ; pyt. ; 2 tl. ; mg.
					..	..		
Belgaum	69-4	Sawant-wadi.	Tue.	7-0	Sawant-wadi.	6·0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Devi Sateri Fr. Mrg. Sud. 8. ; 3 tl.
					Vengurla	15·0		
Belgaum	70-0	Kudal	Wed.	4-0	Kudal	4·0	w.	9 Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 11 to 30. ; 10 tl. ; M. ; 2 mq. ; dg. ; dh ; lib. ; Cch.
					Vengurla	16·0		
Belgaum	80-0	Mangaon	Tue.	7-0	Local	...	w.	Sl. (pr). ; Shri Dev Ganapati Fr. Mrg. Vad. 30. ; 4 tl.
					Vengurla	27·0		
Belgaum	90-0	Banda	Mon.	5-0	Banda	8·0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Madli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 5. ; tl.
					Vengurl	23·0		
...	...	Deserted	...	...	...	...	...	......
Kolhapur	90-0	Malgund	Daily	2-0	...	0·2	w. ; rv. ; cl.	6 Sl (6 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; Adityanath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; 13 tl. ; mq. ; dg. ; gym. ; lib. ; Bhagwati Fr. Ps. Sud. 15 ; Potteries. ; Maha Ling.
					Ratnagiri	10·0		
Belgaum	17-0	Sawant-wadi.	Tue.	8-0	Sawant-wadi.	8·0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10. ; 3 tl. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
					Vengurla	14·0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
992 Nidhalevāḍī ; SGR. ; निढळेवाडी	W ;	12-0	0·3 ;	216 ;	40 ;	23.	Navdi	2-0
923 Nigaḍe ; DPL. ; निगडे	SW ;	4-0	2·2 ;	621 ;	148 ;	539.	Camp-Dapoli.	5-0
924 Nigaḍe ; KD. ; निगडे	S ;	6-0	1·6 ,	485 ;	93 ;	469.	Lavel	3-0
925 Nigaḍī ; MDG. ; निगडी	W ;	10-0	1·5 ;	812 ;	225 ;	556.	Bankot	10-0
926 Nigūḍavāḍī ; SGR. ; निगूडवाडी	E ;	6-0	3·3 ,	418 ;	85 ;	389.	Angaoli	3-0
927 Niguḍe ; SWT. ; निगुडे	S ;	9-0	1·8 ;	939 ;	203 ;	928.	Insuli	2-0
928 Nigunḍal ; GHR. ; निगुंडळ	E ;	12-0	2·9 ;	775 ;	199 ;	692.	Talawali	2-0
929 Niḷavaṇe ; KD. ; निळवणे	N ;	5-0	1·6 ;	352 ;	72 ;	321.	Khed	4-0
930 Niḷelī ; KDL. ; निळेली	E ;	24-0	3·1 ;	61 ;	12 ;	50.	Mangaon	5-0
931 Niḷīk ; KD. ; निळीक	SW ;	4-0	0·7 ;	471 ;	91 ;	145.	Khed	6-0
932 Nināve ; SGR. ; निनावे	SE ;	17-0	1·6 ;	323 ;	69 ;	321.	Sakharpa	5
933 Nirabāḍ ; CLN. ; निरबाड	NW ;	7-0	2·4 ;	782 ;	135 ;	737.	Local	...
934 Niravhāl ; CLN. ; निरव्हाल	W ;	10-0	3·5 ;	1372 ;	270 ;	1272.	Rampur	2-0
935 Nirāvaḍe ; SWT. ; निरावडे	W ;	5-0	5·5 ;	1639 ;	297 ;	1227.	Malgaon	1-4

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar : Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	72-0	Navdi	Wed.	2-0	Sangameshwar	2-0	w. ; n	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Karad	104-0	Camp-Dapoli.	...	5-0	Dapoli	7-0	w.	Sl(pr). ; 3 tl.
					Dabhol	15-0		
Karad	77-0	Khed	...	4-0	Local	...	w.	Sl(pr). ; 2 tl.
Mumbra	106-0	Pandesi	Thu.	7-0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs. ; 2 tl. ; mq. ; lib.
					Mhapral	10-0		
Kolhapur	90-0	Deorukh	Sun.	2-0	Deorukh	6-0	w.	2 tl. ; Mahipat Fort (Historically important).
Belgaum	71-0	Banda	Mon.	3-0	Banda	5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs (mp). ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Vad. 1. ; 6 tl.
					Vengurla	15-0		
Karad	81-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	9-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 4 tl. ; mq. ; 2 dg.
					Karul	3-0		
Karad	92-0	Khed	...	4-0	Khed	5-0	w. ; rv.	Sl(pr). ; 2 tl.
Belgaum	71-0	Mangaon	Tue.	5-0	Local	...	w. ; p.	2 tl.
					Vengurla	21-0		
Karad	10C-0	Khed	...	6-0	Khed	4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Kolhapur	45-0	Sakharpa	Sat.	5	..	1-0	str.	Sl (pr). , tl.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	6-0	w. ; rv. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; Kedarnath Fr. Phg. Vad. 14. ; 5 tl. ; mq.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	7-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl. (pr, m). , pyt. ; 6 tl.
Belgaum	68-0	Sawantwadi.	Tue.	5-0	Sawantwadi.	5-0	w.	2 Sl (2pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 4 tl.
					Vengurla	11-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name : Taluka abbrevi.tion ; Village/Town name in Marathi	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
936 Nirom ; MLV. ; निरोम	NE ; 24-0	2·9 ; 1005 ; 200 ; 896.	Bidwadi 4-0
937 Nirukhe; KDL.; निरुखे	E ; 14-0	4·4 ; 900 ; 143 ; 869.	Digas 6-0
938 Nirul ; RTN. ; निरुळ	SE; 14-0	5·1 ; 1349 ; 291 ; 1185.	Pawas 4-0
939 Nivadhe ; SGR. ; निवधे	E ; 12-0	2·0 ; 305 ; 61 ; 294.	Angaoli 4
940 Nivaje ; KDL. ; निवजे	E ; 11-0	4·0 ; 321 ; 83 ; 318.	Mangaon 5-0
941 Nivalī ; CLN. ; निवली	SW ; 16-0	3·2 ; 1395 ; 250 ; 1306.	Local
942 Nivalī ; RTN. ; निवळी	NE ; 12-0	5·3 ; 1647 ; 338 ; 1532.	Hatkhamba 4-0
943 Nivalī ; SGR. ; निवली	S ; 23-0	2·8 ; 463 ; 94 ; 397.	Nayri 2
944 Nivasar ; LNJ. ; निवसर	NW ; 17-0	2·4 ; 1009 ; 223 ; 840.	Pali 3-0
945 Nivē ; KD. ; निवें	SE ; 30-0	3·9 ; 303 ; 61 . 282.	Dhamnand 14-0
946 Nivē KH. ; SGR. ; निवें खुर्द	E ; 5-0	2·4 ; 737 ; 146 ; 737.	Devrukh 6
947 Nivelī ; RJP. ; निवेली	SW ; 16-0	1·8 ; 220 ; 55 ; 139.	Ansure 2-0
948 Niven Bk. ; SGR. ; निवेन बुद्रुक	SW ; 6-0	3·4 ; 1071 ; 199 ; 903.	Ambav 3
949 Nivendī ; RTN. ; निवेंडी	N ; 32-0	8·3 ; 2300 ; 467 ; 1458.	Local ...
950 Nivośī ; GHR. ; निवोशी	SE ; 5-0	1·6 ; 390 ; 65 ; 368.	Palshet 2-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	72-0	Chindar	Fri.	7-0	Shrawan	3-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (cr). ; Dahikala Fr. ; tl. ; dp.
					Achare	15-0		
Kolhapur	75-0	Kadaval	Fri.	3-0	Local	...	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 6. ; 4 tl. ; M. ; dh. ; lib.
Kolhapur	96-0	Pawas	Daily	4-0	Pawas	5-0	w ; rv.	2 Sl (pr ; m). ; 6 tl.
					Ranpar	6-0		
					Malvan	35-0		
Kolhapur	47	Sakharpa	Sat.	5	...	5-0	rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	10-0	Wados	3-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 Cs (mp, con).; Nivajeshwar Fr. Ps. Sud. 14; 5 tl.
					Vengurla	17-0		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	13-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (fmg). ; Shimga fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 6 tl. ; dp.
Kolhapur	78 0	Ratnagiri	Daily	17-0	...	0-3	w. ; rv. ; n.	3 Sl (3 pr) ; pyt. ; Cs (con). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. Kt. Sud. 11. ; 6 tl. ; M. ; dh. ; Niwali Water fall.
					Ratnagiri	12-0		
Kolhapur	84	Nayri	Wed.	2	...	13-0	w. ; n.	2 tl.
Kolhapur	90-0	Harcheri	Mon.	4-0	Pali	5-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; 4 tl. ; 2 mq.
					Ratnagiri	14-0		
Karad	86-0	Chiplun	...	12-0	Khopi	6-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	90	Deorukh	Sun.	6	Deorukh	5-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Rajapur	Wed.	13-0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr).
					Musakaji	8-0		
Kolhapur	64	Deorukh	Sun.	7	...	6-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	99-0	Malgund	Daily.	2-0	..	1-0	w. ; rv.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; cs. ; Bhagwati Fr. Ps. Sud. 15 ; 9 tl. ; lib.
					Tivari	4-0		
Karad	90-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	6-0	w. ; n. ; t.	2 tl.
					Palshet	3-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (S. miles) : Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
951 Olagāṅv ; DPL. ओळगांव	S ; 7-0	1·5 ; 377 ; 102 196.	Camp Dapoli ; 8-0
952 Ombaḷ ; DGD. ; ओंबळ	NE ; 19-0	2·4 ; 618 ; 126 ; 609.	Shirgaon 3-0
953 Ombaḷi ; CLN. ; ओंबळी	S ; 14-0	3·6 ; 1476 ; 255 ; 1339.	Local ...
954 Oṇanavase ; DPL. ; ओणनवसे	S ; 18-0	1·7 ; 2572 ; 619 ; 639.	Local ...
955 Oṇī ; RJP. ; ओणी	N ; 8-0	5·4 ; 1807 ; 340 ; 1694.	Local ...
956 Oros Bk. ; KDL. ; ओरोस बुद्रुक	N ; 8-0	4·7 ; 1278 ; 254 ; 1066.	Kasal 3-0
957 Oros Kh. ; KDL. ; ओरोस खुर्द	E ; 8-0	1·1 ; 216 ; 32 ; 216.	Digas 1-4
958 Orī ; RTN. ; ओरी	E ; 22-0	7·2 ; 1506 ; 328 ; 1225.	Malgund 6-0
959 Osargāṅv KVL. ; ओसरगांव	S ; 7-0	6·8 ; 1868 ; 343 ; 1198.	Local ...
960 Osivale ; RJP. ; ओशिवळे	E ; 14-0	4·0 ; 113[illegible] ; 194 ; 958.	Saundal 5-0
961 Oṭav ; KVL. ; ओटव	S ; 7-0	2·4 ; 678 ; 148 ; 586.	Asalda 3-0
962 Oṭavaṇẽ ; SWT. ; ओटवणें	SE ; 5-0	4·2 ; 1596 ; 288 ; 1262.	Charatha 3-0
963 Ovaḷī ; CLN. ; ओवळी	E ; 18-0	6·0 ; 1035 ; 211 ; 898.	Local ...
964 Ovaḷīye ; SWT. ; ओवळीये	E ; 11-0	3·6 ; 371 ; 84 ; 345.	Danoli 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	109-0	Camp Dapoli;		8-0	Dabhol	5-0	rv; tl.	
Kolhapur	67-0	Koloshi	Wed.	5-0	Deogad	21-0	rv.; cl.	Sl (pr).; 5 tl.
Karad	..	......	...	...	Chiplun	8-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; 5 tl.
Karad	117-0	Local	...	...	Dabhol Dabhol	4-0 4-0	w.; spr.; o.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 3 tl.; 2 mq; dg.; Balpir—Hill station.
Kolhapur	60-0	Rajapur	Wed.	9-0	 Musakaji	... 26-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.; dh.
Kolhapur	70-0	Sukalwadi	Sat.	7-0	Local Malvan	... 26-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. Mrg. Vad. 4.; 9 tl.; M.; dh.; Cch.
Kolhapur	75-0	Kadaval	Fri.	2-0	Kadaval Malvan	1-4 28-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Shri Dev Gangoba Fr. Mrg. Sud. 4.; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	102	Phungus	Tue.	12-0	Tarwal Tiveri	2-0 6-0	w.; cl.	3 Sl (3 pr).; Cs.; 3 tl.; lib.
Kolhapur	66-0	Kankavli	Tue.	6-0	Local Malvan	... 23-0	w.	5 Sl (5 pr).; pyt.; 11 tl.; M.; 2 dh.; dp.
Kolhapur	101-0	Pachal	Sun.	8-0	Oni Musakaji	9-0 34-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	59-0	Kankavli	Tue.	8-0	Nandgaon Deogad	3-0 23-0	w.	Sl(pr).; 4 tl.
Belgaum	68-0	Banda	Mon.	5-0	Banda Vengurla	5-0 20-0	w.; rv.	Sl(pr.).; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Kt. Vad. 5.; tl.; M.; dh.
Karad	60-0	......			Chiplun	13-0	w.	Sl(pr).; 2 tl.
Belgaum	52-0	Danoli	Mon.	2-0	Danoli Vengurla	2-1 26-0	w.; rv.	Sl(pr).; Gangoba Fr. Mrg. Sud. 8.; tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
965 Ovaḷiye ; MVN. ; ओवळीयें	N. E ; 24-0	3·3 ; 1421 ; 273 ; 1222.	Kalse 4-0
966 Ozaram ; KVL. ; ओझरम	N. W ; 14-0	4·8 ; 1252 ; 270 ; 1133.	Local ...
967 Ozar ; RJP. ; ओझर	N. E ; 13-0	5·4 ; 1386 ; 247 ; 1278.	....
968 Ozarakhol ; SGR. ; ओझरखोल	W ; 12-4	1·4 ; 400 ; 74 ; 333.	Kurdunda 2-0
969 Ozare Bk. ; SGR. ; ओझरे बुद्रुक	E ; 20-0	9·2 ; 1128 ; 218 ; 1128.	Sakharpa 7-0
970 Ozare Kh. ; SGR. ; ओझरे खुर्द	N. E ; 2-0	3·3 ; 772 ; 142 ; 762.	Deorukh 2-0
971 Pābhare ; GHR. ; पाभरे	E ; 15-0	3·7 ; 707 ; 153 ; 705.	Palshet 2-0
972 Pācal ; RJP. ; पाचल	E ; 18-0	5·9 ; 1986 ; 393 ; 1615.	Raypatan 2-0
973 Pācavalī ; DPL. ; पाचवली	N ; 10-0	1·9 ; 551 ; 123 ; 467.	Palgad 4-0
974 Pācaraḷ ; MDG. ; पाचरळ	W ; 5-0	2·2 ; 470 ; 117 ; 426.	Mandangad 5-0
975 Pācerī Āgar ; GHR. ; पाचेरी आगर	S ; 27-0	3·1 ; 742 ; 158 ; 706.	Veer 10-0
976 Pācerī Saḍā ; GHR. ; पाचरी सडा	S ; 25-0	3·7 ; 1328 ; 319 ; 1201.	Veer 12-0
977 Pāḍale ; DPL. ; पाडले	NW 15-0	0·6 ; 603 ; 108 ; 330.	Ade 0-4
978 Pāḍalos ; SWT. ; पाडलोस	SW ; 13-0	3·3 ; 667 ; 140 ; 535.	Madura 2-0
979 Paḍavaṇ ; LNJ. ; पडवण	S ; 5-4	1·7 ; 397 ; 73 ; 352.	Varvadi Bk. 2-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	73-0	Kalse	Thu.	4-0	Kasal	4-0	rv. ; n. ; w.	2 SI(2 pr). ; Dabhikala Fr. Mrg. Sud. 13. ; 3 tl.
					Malvan	24-0		
Kolhapur	63-0	Talere	Tue.	3-0	Talere	3-0	w. ; rv. ; t. ; O.	SI(pr). ; pyt. ; 10 tl. ; lib.
					Vijaydurg	32-0		
Kolhapur	60-0	Lanje	Tue.	16-0	Oni	4-0	w.	SI(pr). ; pyt. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; mq.
					Musakaji	30-0		
Kolhapur	73-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	2-0	Sangameshwar.	2-4	w. ; n.	2 tl.
					......			
Kolhapur	47-0	Sakharpa	Sat.	7-0	...	3-0	w.	SI(pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	63-0	Deorukh	Sun.	2-0	...	2-0	w.	SI(pr). ; Cs. (Fmg). ; 4 tl. ; mq.
Karad	90-0	......			Guhagar	18-0	w. ; pit; rv.	SI(pr). ; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	18-0		
Kolhapur	97-0	Local	Sun.	...	Oni	13-0	w.	2 SI(2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs(mp). ; Hanuman jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; M. ; mq.
					Musakaji	36-0		
Karad	118-0	Palgad	...	4-0	.. ...		w. ; rv.	SI(pr). ; tl.
					Harnai	17-0		
Mumbra	120-0	Panderi	Thu.	4-0	......		w.	SI(pr). ; 2 tl.
					Mhapral	15-0		
Karad	116-0	......			Makhjan	16-0	w. ; cl. ; rv.	SI(pr). ; tl.
					Jaigad	...		
Karad	110-0	......			Makhjan	16-0	w. ; cl.	2 SI(2 pr). ; 2 tl.
					Jaigad	...		
Karad	116-0	Ade	...	0-4	Harnai	4-0	w. ; n.	SI(pr). ; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; dg. ; lib.
					Harnai	4-0		
Belgaum	73-0	Banda	Mon.	5-0	Banda	6-0	w.	SI (pr). ; Cs(mp). ; 5 tl.
					Vengurla	15-0		
Kolhapur	87-0	Lanje	Tue.	7-0	Vaked	3-4	w. ; rv.	Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl.
					Ratnagiri	32-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural ; population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
980 Paḍave ; RJP. ; पडवें	S ;	8–0	1·5 ;	424 ;	88 ;	388.	Mhapral	2–0
981 Paḍave ; SWT. ; पडवे	N ;	10–0	1·4 ;	67 ;	16 ;	...	Kalne	4–0
982 Paḍave ; KDL. ; पडवे	N ;	15–0	2·1 ;	797 ;	145 ;	764.	Kasal	3–0
983 Paḍave ; MDG. ; पडवे	NE ;	9–0	1·5 ;	424 ;	88 ;	388.	Mhapral	2–0
984 Paḍel ; DGD. ; पडेल	N ;	10–0	5·1 ;	2192 ;	397 ;	1479.	Local	...
985 Pāl ; SWT. ; पाल	E ;	36–0	3·6 ;	339 ;	60 ;	332.	Bhedshi	8–0
986 Pāl ; KD. ; पालं	E ;	32–0	2·5 ;	580 ;	109 ;	579.	Dhamnand	2–0
987 Pālgaḍ ; DPL. ; पालगड	NE ;	13–0	5·9 ;	2873 ;	595 ;	2244.	Local	...
988 Pālaghar ; MDG. ; पालघर	SE ;	5–0	1·1 ;	390 ;	90 ;	315.	Mandangad	5–0
989 Pāḷapaṇē ; GHR. ; पालपणें	N ;	7–0	4·1 ;	1573 ;	315 ;	1566.	Pat Panhale	1–4
990 Paḷasambe ; MLV. ; पळसंबे	S ;	24–0	4·5 ;	1004 ;	164 ;	965.	Shrawan	3–0
991 Pālaśet ; GHR. ; पालशेत	S ;	8–0	4·9 ;	3279 ;	1028 ;	1256.	Local	...
992 Pālavaṇ ; CLN. ; पालवण	SW ;	15–0	2·8 ;	971 ;	181 ;	841.	Nivli	1–0
993 Pālavaṇī ; MDG. ; पालवणी	S ;	10–0	6·4 ;	1570 ;	323 ;	1454.	Local	...

Railway St. Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port . Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Mumbra	106-0	Mhepral	Fri.	2-0	Rajapur	8-0	w;spr.;n.	2 Sl (2p-). ; pyt. ; 5tl.
					Musakaji	10-0		
Belgaum	80-0	Banda	Mon.	6-0	Banda	5-0	n.	......
					Vengurla	28-0		
Kolhapur	75-0	Sukalwadi	Sat.	2-0	Local	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; Ca (Misc). ; 3 tl. ; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 3.
					Malvan	23-0		
Mumbra	106-0	Mhapral	Fri.	2-0	Mahad	15-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Ca(mp). ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; tl. Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 1 to 5.
					Mhapral	4-0		
Kolhapur	96-0	Local	Wed.	...	Vijaydurg	12-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Ca(mp). ; Shri Shankareshwar Fr. Kt. Sud. 10 to 15. ; 7 tl. ; lib. ; dp.
					Vijaydurg	12-0		
Belgaum	40-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	8-0	Konalkatta	29-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Vengurla	50-0		
Karad	73-0	Chiplun	...	13-0	Chiplun	16-0	w. : rv.	Sl (pr). : pyt. ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	116-0	Local	...	...	Local	...	w.	6 Sl (4 pr, mh.). ; pyt. ; Gavdevi Fr. Phg. Vad. 1. ; 16 tl. ; mq. ; ch. ; 2 lib. ; dp.
					Harnai	21-0		
Mumbra	113-0	Mhapral	Fri.	15-0	Dasgaon	15-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl. ; mq.
					Mhapral	16-0		
Karad	82-0	..	...	...	Guhagar	6-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
					Dabhol	15-0		
Kolhapur	76-0	Chindar	Fri.	3-0	Local	...	w. ; n.	Sl(pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Khalnath Fr. Mg. Vad. 1. ; 2 tl.
					Malvan	10-0		
Karad	87-0	...	...	...	Guhagar	6-0	w. ; cl.	4 Sl (3 pr ; m.). ; pyt. ; 2 Ca. (fmg ; fishing). ; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; 21 tl. ; 2 dh. ; lib. ; dp.
					Local	...		
...	...	..	...	...	Chiplun	12-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
					...	...		
Mumbra	130-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Dapoli	18-0	w. ; cl.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; Ca. (mp). ; 11 tl. ; dp. ; Inscription on stone in a lake.
					Mhapral	18-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
994 Pāḷye ; SWT. ; पाल्ये	NE ; 34-0	2·7 ; 187 ; 38 ; 148.	Bhedshi 9-0
995 Pāḷe ; MDG. ; पाळे	W ; 2-0	1·8 ; 629 ; 113 ; 611.	Mandangad 4-0
996 Pāli ; CLN. ; पाली	NE ; 5-0	1·7 ; 635 ; 135 ; 501.	Chiplun 5-0
997 Pālī ; RTN. ; पाली	SE ; 14-0	3·1 ; 1251 ; 211 ; 924.	Local ...
998 Pālī ; GHR. ; पाली	W ; 14-0	2·6 ; 553 ; 115 ; 537.	Ibhrampur 8-0
999 Pāḷū ; LNJ. ; पाळू	E ; 12-0	5·2 ; 1413 ; 289 ; 1405.	Shiposhi 3-0
1000 Paṇaderī ; MDG. ; पणदेरी	W ; 8-0	5·7 ; 2488 ; 587 ; 1144.	Local ...
1001 Paṇaderī ; DPL. ; पणदेरी	S ; 18-0	2·0 ; 596 ; 129 ; 347.	Dabhol 5-0
1002 Pāṇadūr ; KDL. ; पाणदूर	N ; 3-4	1·8 ; 870 ; 176 ; 490.	Bambarde T. Kalsuli. 1-0
1003 Pāṇaturlī ; SWT. ; पाणतुर्ली	... 29-0	1·4 ; 172 ; 37 ; 162.	Bhedshi 5-0
1004 Pācāmbe ; SGR. ; पाचांबे	E ; 38-0	5·1 ; 484 ; 112 ; 483.	Kuthare 4-0
1005 Pañcanadī ; DPL. ; पंचनदी	S ; 15-0	1·8 ; 1113 ; 251 ; 409.	Kolthare 0-4
1006 Pāṇere ; RJP. ; पाणेरे	W ; 15-0	2·1 ; 96 ; 18 ; 96.	Wadanavedar 6-0
1007 Pāṅgare Bk. ; RJP. ; पांगरे बुद्रुक	E ; 7-0	2·9 ; 614 ; 121 ; 500.	Rajapur 10-0
1008 Pāṅgarī ; SGR. ; पांगरी	W ; 12-0	3·0 ; 754 ; 154 ; 679.	Wandri 7-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
delgaum	33-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	9-0	Konalkatta	3-0	w.	tl.
					Vengurla	47-0		
Mumbra	120-0	Panderi	Thu.	6-0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Mhapral	11-0		
Karad	60-0	...	...	...	Chiplun	5-0	rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	65-0	Harcheri	Mon.	8-0	Local	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (cr). ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. dh. ; lib. ; dp.
					Ratnagiri	15-0		
Karad	78-0	...	...	...	Guhagar	16-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	20-0		
Kolhapur	65-0	Lanje	Tue.	12-0	Shiposhi	3-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
					Ratnagiri	36-0		
Mumbra	129-0	Local	Thur.	...	...	...	w. ; rv.	5 Sl (5 pr). ; pyt. ; Hanumanh Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl., 2 mq. ; dh. ; ch. ; lib.
					Mhapral	6-0		
Karad	118-0	Dabhol	...	5-0	...	...	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl. ; dg.
					Dabhol	8-0		
Belgaum	30-0	Kudal	Wed.	5-0	Local	...	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Shri Devi Sateri Fr. Mrg. Sud. 10 ; 2 tl.
					Malvan	26-0		
Belgaum	77-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	5-0	Bhedshi	5-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (m). ; tl.
					Vengurla	42-0		
Karad	100-0	Makhjan	Sat.	14-0	...	12-0	w. ; str.	Sl (m). ;
					...	...		
Karad	115-0	Kolthare	...	0-4	Kolthare	0-4	cl. ; w	Shri Dev Sapteshwar Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; dg. ; lib., tl.
					Dabhol	5-0		
Kolhapur	94-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	Rajapur	12-0	w.	Sl (pr).
					Musakaji	4-0		
Kolhapur	75-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	5-0	Kondye	3-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; Cs (mp). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 11 to 15. ; 4 tl.
					Musakaji	22-0		
Kolhapur	72-0	Phungus	Tues.	10-0	...	3-0	n. ; str.	Sl (pr). ; 6 tl. ; lib ; dp.
					...	...	w.	

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural Population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1009 Pāṅgārī Havelī ; GHR. ; पांगारी हवेली.	E ; 20-0	3·6 ; 1076 ; 213 ; 662	Local ...
1010 Pāṅgārī Tarf Havelī ; DPL. ; पांगारी तर्फ हवेली.	S ; 22-0	2 6 ; 1122 ; 241 ; 803	Dabhol 2-0
1011 Pāṅgārī Tarf Velamb ; GHR. ; पांगारी तर्फ वेळंब.	S ; 10-0	2 6 ; 692 ; 162 ; 664	Welamb 2-0
1012 Pāṅgārī Inām ; DPL. ; पांगारी इनाम.	E ; 8-0	0·8 ; 513 ; 101 ; 410	Wakavli 3-0
1013 Pāṅgārī Kh. ; RJP. ; पांगारी खुर्द.	E ; 23-4	4·1 ; 405 ; 87 ; 405	Raypatan 7-0
1014 Panhāḷe ; LNJ. ; पन्हाळे.	S ; 4-0	3·9 ; 977 ; 199 ; 931	Veravli Bk. 3-0
1015 Panhāḷe Kājī ; DPL. ; पन्हाळे काजी.	S ; 11-0	2 2 ; 842 ; 176 ; 563	Dabhol 3-0
1016 Panhāḷe Tarf Rājāpūr ; RJP. ; पन्हाळे तर्फ राजापूर.	S ; 4-0	2·3 ; 551 ; 102 ; 374	Rajapur 3-0
1017 Panhāḷe Tarf Saundal ; RJP. ; पन्हाळे तर्फ सौंदल.	E ; 9-0	2 3 ; 668 ; 122 ; 637	Korle 15-0
1018 Panhāḷī ; RTN. ; पन्हाळी	N ; 35-0	1·0 ; 173 ; 37 ; 84	Saitavade 3-0
1019 Panhāḷī Bk. ; MDG. ; पन्हाळी बुद्रुक.	W ; 10-0	1·3 ; 311 ; 95 ; 275	Bankot 5-0
1020 Panhaḷī Kh. ; MDG. ; पन्हाळी खुर्द.	N ; 6-0	1·0 ; 314 ; 66 ; 205	Mhapral 3-0
1021 Pāṅgraḍ ; KDL. पांग्रड.	E ; 16-0	7·0 ; 1094 ; 205 ; 1000	Local ...
1022 Panhāḷajē ; KD. ; पन्हाळजे.	S ; 24-0	3 1 ; 1389 ; 231 ; 909	Savanas 4-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	84-0	......			Guhagar	15-0	w.	4 Sl(4 pr). pyt. ; tl. ; M. ; 3 mq; 2 dg.
					Dabhol Pangari Local.			
Karad	119-0	Dabhol	...	2-0	Dabhol	3-0	w.	2 Sl(2 pr). ; 2 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
					Dabhol	3-0		
Karad	84-0	......			......		w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; tl.
					Guhagar	12-0		
					Dabhol	17-0		
Karad	94-0	Wakaoli	...	3-0	Dapoli	6-0	w. ; t. ; rv.	2 tl. ; mq.
					Harnai	19-0		
Kolhapur	94-0	Talavde	Sun.	4-0	Oni	12-0	w. ; rv.	Sl(pr) 2 tl.
					Musakaji	40-0		
Kolhapur	83-0	Lanje	Tue.	3-0	Kuve	1-0	w. ; rv.	Sl(pr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
					Ratnagiri	30-0		
Karad	12-0	Dabhol	...	3-0	Dabhol	8-0	rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; mq.
					Dabhol	8-0		
Kolhapur	83-0	Rajapur	Wed.	3-0	Rajapur	4-0	w. ; n.	tl.
					Musakaji	12-0		
Kolhapur	77-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	Local	...	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; 5 tl.
					Musakaji	23-0		
Kolhapur	118-0	Saitavade	Sat.	3-0		1-0	w. ; rv.	Sl(pr). ; tl.
					Jaigad	8-4		
Mumbra	105-0	Panderi	Thu.	19-0	......		t.	tl.
					Bankot	10-0		
Mumbra	105-0	Mhapral	Fri.	3-0	Mhapral	3-0	w. : rv.	gym. ch.
Belgaum	32-0	Kadaval	Fri.	5-0	Nirukhe	2-0	w. ; cl	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; 4 tl. ; dh.
					Malvan	40-0		
Karad	70-0	Chiplun	....	13-0	Chiplun	13	w. ; pl.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; 2 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
					...	...		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q., Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural Population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1023 Pānāvaḷ ; RTN. ; पानवळ.	E ; 7-0	3·5 ; 1216 ; 242 ; 1182	Hatkhamba 3-0
1024 Panore ; LNJ. ; पनोरे.	SW ; 13-4	1·8 ; 409 ; 80 ; 282	Satavli 2-0
1025 Paracuri ; SGR. ; परचुरी.	W ; 16-0	3·3 ; 1193 ; 256 ; 676	Deorukh 1-0
1026 Paracuri ; GHR. ; परचुरी.	E ; 14-0	2·7 ; 1068 ; 246 ; 890	Pat Panhale 10-0
1027 Paramē ; SWT. ; परमें.	NE ; 31-0	3·6 ; 493 ; 117 ; 348	Bhadshi 1-0
1028 Parāḍ ; MLV. ; पराड.	W ; 12-0	0·5 ; 508 ; 90 ; 275	Pendur 2-0
1029 Pārapoli ; SWT. ; पारपोली.	E ; 13-0	7·5 ; 553 ; 108 ; 448	Danoli 3-0
1030 Paravali ; RJP. ; परवली	NE ; 14-0	0·9 ; 560 ; 123 ; 557	Saundal 1-0
1031 Paruḷe ; RJP. ; परुळे ...	S ; 9-0	4·9 ; 1098 ; 163 ; 1004	Raypatan 4-0
1032 Paruḷē ; VGR. ; परुळें.	N ; 12-0	17·3 ; 6797 ; 1274 ; 2902	Local ...
1033 Pāṭ ; MDG. ; पाट ..	N ; 2-0	3·4 ; 319 ; 67 ; 310	Mandangad 2-0
1034 Pāṭ ; KDL. ; पाट ...	W ; 9-4	8·9 ; 4780 ; 841 ; 3882	Local ...
1035 Pāṭ Panhāḷe ; GHR. ; पाट पन्हाळे.	E ; 4-0	4·6 ; 1746 ; 446 ; 1411	Local ...

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	74-0	Harcheri	Mon.	5-0	...	...	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. ; Sud. 15. ; 6 tl.
					Ratnagiri	8-0		
Kolhapur	93-0	Satavli	Sat.	2-0	...	14-0	n.	2 tl.
					Purnagad	14-0		
Kolhapur	62-0	Deorukh	Sun.	1-0	Kurd-hunde	2-0	w. ; n.	2 Sl (2 pr.). ; 3 tl. ; ch.
					...	...		
Karad	94-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	18-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (pr., m) ; pyt. ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15., 2 tl. ; mq.
					Dabhol Pangari	4-0		
Belgaum	94-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	1-4	Banda	23-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pvt. ; Once in a year in the month of Kt. Mrg. or Ps. ; day is not fixed. ; tl.
					Vengurla	47-0		
Kolhapur	83-0	Katta	Fri.	3-0	Katta	1-4	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl. ; mq.
					Malvan	16-0		
Belgaum	50-0	Danoli	Sun.	3-0	Danoli	3-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Khalnath Fr. Mrg. Vad. 8. ; tl.
					Vengurla	27-0		
Kolhapur	36-0	Vavda	Thur.	16-0	Oni	8-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl. ; mq.
					Musakaji	29-0		
Kolhapur	48-0	Talavde	Sun.	4-0	...	...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; 3 tl.
					Musakaji	34-0		
Belgaum	90-0	Local	Fri.	...	Kudal	14-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (pr) ; pyt. ; 2 Cs (mp). ; Shri Dev Khalnath Fr. Kt. Sud. 11. and Ct. Sud. 10. ; Shri Dev Adi Narayan Fr. Ct. Sud. 13. ; Shri Dev Vetoba Fr. Ct. Sud. 9. ; 11 tl. ; dh. ; 2 lib. ; dp.
					Vengurla	15-0		
Mumbra	110-0	Mhapral	Fri.	4-0	...	...	w	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Mhapral	8-0		
Belgaum	88-0	Kudal	Wed.	11-0	Local	...	w.	6 Sl (6 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs. (con). ; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. An. Sud. 11. ; 12 tl. ; 2 M. ; 2 dg. ; dh. ; 2 dp.
					Vengurla	21-0		
Karad	84-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	6-0	w. ; t.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl. ; mq. ; dg. ; dp.
					Dabhol	15-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbrevation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q., Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1036 Pāṭagānv ; SGR. ; पाटगांव.	SW 1-0	1 5 ; 685 ; 131 ; 676	Deorukh 1-0
1037 Pāṭagānv ; DGD. ; पाटगांव.	E ; 19-0	3·6 ; 594 ; 124 ; 581	Phanasgaon 4-0
1038 Pātharaṭ ; RTN. ; पाथरट.	SE ; 14-0	0·8 ; 250 ; 43 ; 250	Pali 1-0
1039 Pātharḍe ; RJP. ; पाथर्डे	N ; 4-0	2·5 ; 512 ; 93 ; 498	Rajapur 3-0
1040 Pātharḍī ; CLN. ; पाथर्डी.	SW ; 10-4	1·8 ; 317 ; 64 ; 229	Rampur 2-0
1041 Pāthe ; CLN. ; पाथे ..	N ; 29-0	1·4 ; 81 ; 15 ; 66	Kutre 5-0
1042 Pāṭye ; SWT. ; पाटये ..	E ; 35-0	6·2 ; 694 ; 148 ; 680	Bhedshi 7-0
1043 Pāvanaḷ ; DPL. ; पावनळ.	S ; 21-0	1·6 ; 361 ; 87 ; 166	Pophalswne 5-0
1044 Pāvas ; RTN. ; पांवस ..	S ; 9-0	5·4 ; 3540 ; 744 ; 2054	Local ...
1045 Pāvaśī ; KDL. ; पावशी.	N ; 1-4	5·7 ; 2625 ; 474 ; 1888	Local ...
1046 Peḍhāmbe ; CLN. ; पेढांबे.	E ; 8-0	6·1 ; 1815 ; 390 ; 1728	Kanhe 3-0
1047 Peḍhāmbe ; SGR. ; पेढांबे.	W ; 35-0	2·1 ; 702 ; 154 ; 698	Veer 4-0
1048 Peḍhe Paraśarām ; CLN. ; पेढे पर्शराम.	NW ; 7-0	2·4 ; 1970 ; 400 ; 968	Local ...
1049 Penḍhkhale ; RJP. ; पेंढखळे.	W ; 11-0	5·5 ; 1508 ; 300 ; 1381	Bhoo 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	62-0	Deorukh	Sun.	1-0	Deorukh	1-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	80-0	Tale Bazar	Tue.	6-0	Vijaydurg	25-0	w. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	63-0	Harcheri	Mon.	5-0	...	2-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Ratnagiri	16-0		
Kolhapur	83-0	Rajapur	Wed.	3-0	Rajapur	3-0	cl. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
					Musakaji	19-0		
Karad	...	Karad	...	...	Chiplun	11-0	w.	Pyt. ; Cs (n.p). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl. ; mq.
					..	...		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	26-0	w.	Bhairi Fr. Ct. Sud. 1. ; tl. ; Bhairamgad Fort.
					..	...		
Belgaum	92-0	Kankumbi	Fri.	7-0	Konal-katta	24-0	w	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Vengurla	50-0		
Karad	121-0	Pophalawne	...	5-0	Dabhol	5-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	12-0		
Kolhapur	92-0	Local	Daily	...	Local	...	w. ; rv. cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs. ; Ur. Kt. Sud. 15. ; Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10. ; 8 tl. ; 3 mq ; 2 dg. ; ch. ; 3 lib. ; 3 dp.
					Ranpar	2-0		
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	1-0	Local	...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Devi Sateri fr. Kt. Vad. 6. Shri Devi Pavanabai fr. Mrg. Sud. 5. Shri Dev. Lingeshwar Fr. Mrg. Sud. 12.; Shri Devi Sateri Saptah, Srn Sud.6to13. ;5tl. ;M.
					Vengurla	15-0		
Karad	50-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	10-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 3 tl.
					..	...		
Kolhapur	94-0	Makhjan	Sat.	6-0	Makhjan	5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Ganapati Fr. Bdp. Sud.4; 2 tl.
					.	...		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	3-0	w.; cl.; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Santali Ekadashi Mrg. Vad. 11; Mahashivratra Fr. mg. Vad. 14. ; 8 tl. (Parshuram Temple).
					...	...		
Kolhapur	87-0	Rajapur	Wed.	7-0	...	...	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
					Musakaji	14-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
1050 Pēṇḍharī ; DGD. ; पेंढरी	E ;	16-0	3·6 ;	547 ;	142 ;	547	Bhond	4-0
1051 Peṇḍūr ; MLV. ; पेंडूर	E ;	13-0	8·1 ;	6621 ;	1320 ;	3986	Local	...
1052 Peve ; MDG. ; पेवे	W ;	7-0	2·3 ;	959 ;	224 ;	654	Mhapral	5-0
1053 Peve ; GHR. ; पेवे	E ;	8-0	5·4 ;	2790 ;	562 ;	1845	Local	...
1054 Phaṇasagānv ; DGD. ; फणसगांव	NE ;	22-0	7·5 ;	2023 ;	394 ;	1900	Local	...
1055 Phāṇasaṭ ; SGR. ; फणसट	W ;	9-0	1·3 ;	234 ;	55 ;	158	Ambav	5
1056 Phaṇasavaḍe ; SWT. ; फणसवडे	E ;	17-0	3·5 ;	167 ;	36 ;	166	Danoli	6-0
1057 Phaṇasāvaḷe ; SGR. ; फणसावळे	NE ;	16-0	4·7 ;	497 ;	101 ;	488	Teryen	12
1058 Phaṇasāvaḷe ; RTN. ; फणसावळे	E ;	8-0	4·0 ;	1151 ;	255 ;	1072	Hatkhamba	3-0
1059 Phaṇasávne ; SGR. ; फणसावणे	N ;	13-0	3·4 ;	1281 ;	248 ;	909	Local	...
1060 Phaṇasop ; RTN. ; फणसोप	S ;	3-0	4·0 ;	2195 ;	455 ;	1035	Local	..
1061 Phaṇasū ; DPL. ; फणसू	SE ;	14-0	2·5 ;	709 ;	165 ;	483	Dabhol	5-0
1062 Pharāre ; DPL. ; फरारे	SE ;	24-0	2·1 ;	740 ;	167 ;	150	Wawaghar	5-0
1063 Phoṇḍā ; KVL. ; फोंडा	NE ;	12-0	16·3 ;	5205 ;	1033 ;	3938	Local	...
1064 Phoṇḍye ; SWT. ; फोंडये	N ;	8-0	1·0 ;	39 ;	9 ;	24	Kalne	3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities;	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	80-0	Tale Bazar	Thur.	8-0	Vijaydurg ...	26-0 ...	cl.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	76-0	Local	Fri.	...	Katta Malvan	2-0 12-0	w.	9 Sl (8 pr ; h). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). Fr. Kt. Sud. 8. ; Kt. Vad ; 11. ; Kt. Vad. 15. ; 10 tl. ; dh. ; 4 dp.
Mumbra	127-0	Panderi	Thu.	2-0	... Mhapral	... 5-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; Fr. Ct. Sud. 13. ; tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Karad	86-0	......	...	...	Guhagar Karul	12-0 1-0	w. ; pl.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; pyt. ; 6 tl. ; 2 mq. ; 4 dg.
Kolhapur	68-0	Talere	Tue.	4-0	Vijaydurg ...	30-0 ...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; cs(mp). ; 8 tl.
Kolhapur	72-0	Sangameshwar	Wed.	18	... ...	5-0 ...	rv.	3 tl. ; mq.
Belgaum	68-0	Danoli	Sun.	6-0	Banda Vengurla	15-0 36-0	n.	Sl. (pr.). ; tl.
Kolhapur	78-0	Sangameshwar	Wed.	16	... ...	15-0 ...	w.	Sl. (pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	87-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	6-0	Sheel Ratnagiri	2-4 7-0	cl. ; spr.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; cs (fmg). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 13. ; 3 tl.
Morar Road	42-0	Sangameshwar	Wed.	51	Kasaba-Sangameshwar ...	5-0 ...	rv.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; 7 tl. ; 2 mq. ; dg. ; lib. ; hot springs.
Kolhapur	86-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	3-0	... Ratnagiri	... 4-0	w.	5 Sl (5 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs. ; 3 tl. ; 2 mq. ; dh.
Karad	107-0	Dabhol	...	5-0	Degaon Dabhol	5-0 12-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
Karad	118-0	Wawaghar	...	5-0	.. Dabhol	... 11-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Kolhapur	54-0	Local	Mon.	...	Local Deogad	.. 30-0	w.	9 Sl (7 pr. m. h.). ; pyt ; Gangoba Fr. Ps. Sud. 1. ; 13 tl. ; M. ; dh. ; lib. ; 5 dp.
Belgaum	90-0	Banda	Mon.	6-0	Banda Vengurla	8-0 27-0	n.	

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
1065 Phukerī ; SWT. ; फुकेरी	E;	20-0	2·3 ;	306 ;	63 ;	296	Tamboli	6-0
1066 Phūṇagus ; SGR. ; फूणगुस	E ;	18-0	2·4 ;	1610 ;	357 ;	970	Local	...
1067 Phupere ; RJP ; फुपेरे	E ;	14-0	2·6 ;	637 ;	139 ;	634	Saundal	3-0
1068 Phurūs ; CLN ; फुरूस	S ;	20-0	4·3 ;	721 ;	170 ;	641	Nandgaon	5-4
1069 Phurūs ; KD ; फुरूस	W ;	6-0	4·2 ;	2136 ;	441 ;	1663	Local	...
1070 Picaḍolī ; DPL ; पिचडोली	NW ;	12-0	3·0 ;	393 ;	86 ;	379	Anjarle	9-0
1071 Piguḷī ; KDL ; पिगुळी	E ;	6-0	5·0 ;	2827 ;	545 ;	2238	Kudal	3-0
1072 Pikuḷẽ ; SWT ; पिकुळें	...	30-0	3·3 ;	1158 ;	273 ;	1029	Bhedshi	3-0
1073 Piḷavalī Tarf Savarḍā ; CLN ; पिळवली तर्फ सावर्डा	N ;	29-0	4·1 ;	823 ;	170 ;	479	Veer	2-0
1074 Piḷavalī Tarf Velamb ; CLN ; पिळवली तर्फ वेळंब	W ;	25-0	3·8 ;	727 ;	143 ;	668	Nivli	6-0
1075 Pimpaḷavaṭ ; GHR ; पिंपळवट	NE ;	2-4	0·7 ;	251 ;	55 ;	244	Pat Panhale	2-0
1076 Pimpaḷī Bk ; CLN ; पिंपळी बुद्रुक	E ;	6-0	1·5 ;	856 ;	179 ;	787	Kanhe	1-0
1077 Pimpaḷī Kh ; CLN ; पिंपळी खुर्द	E ;	5-0	1·3 ;	608 ;	114 ;	469	Kanhe	2-0
1078 Pimpaḷolī ; MDG ; पिंपळोली	SE ;	7-0	1·1 ;	804 ;	156 ;	725	Latwan	4-0
1079 Pimpār ; GHR ; पिंपार	S ;	11-0	4·5 ;	1187 ;	271 ;	1045	Welamb	2-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	82-0	Banda	Mon.	4-0	Banda	6-0	n. ; spr.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	27-0		
Kolhapur	78-0	Local	Tue.	...	Kurd-hunde	4-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Cs. ; Shimga Fr; Phg. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl. ; mq.; dg. ; dh. ; ch. ; dp.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	96-0	Kharepatan.	Tue.	6-0	...	...	w.	2 Sl(2 pr). ; tl.
					Musakaji	24-0		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	19-0	w.	Sl (pr.). ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	92-0	Khed	...	3-0	Local	...	w.	4 Sl (3 pr., h.). , pyt. ; Ur. Mrg. Vad. 12. ; tl. ; 2 mq. ; dg. ; ch. ; 2 lib.
					...	...		
Karad	112-0	Anjarle	...	9-0	Dapoli	9-0	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
					Harnai	12-0		
Belgaum	75-0	Kudal	Wed.	3-0	Local	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ;
					Vengurla	10-0		
Belgaum	95-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	3-0	Bhedshi	4-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (m). ; tl.
					Vengurla	48-0		
Karad	...	......	..	...	Chiplun	20-0	rv. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	...	......	...	..	Chiplun	13-0	rv.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	85-0	.....	...	..	Guhagar	3-0	rv. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Dabhol	9-0		
Karad	65-0	.....	...	...	Ch.plun	8-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pı). ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl. ; mq.
					...	..		
Karad	65-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	5-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
					...	...		
Mumbra	122-0	Mhapral	Fri.	17-0	Dapoli	17-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 2 tl. ; mq. ; dg. ; lib.
					Mhapral	18-0		
Karad	94-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	12-0	w.; o.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 4 tl. ; lib.
					Borya	3-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1080 Piradavaṇẽ ; RTN ; पिरदवणें	N ; 8-2	0·9 ; 359 ; 75 ; 243	Kotavde 1-0
1081 Piraṇadavaṇẽ ; SGR ; पिरणदवणें	NW ; 19-0	2·2 ; 710 ; 157 ; 563	Makhjan 9-0
1082 Pisaī ; DPL ; पिसई	NE ; 8-0	3·2 ; 1004 ; 195 ; 744	Wakaoli 1-4
1083 Pise Kāmate ; KVL ; पिसे कामते	W ; 3-0	2·9 ; 716 ; 141 ; 514	Kankavli 4-0
1084 Piyāḷī ; KVL ; पियाळी	W ; 14-0	2·5 ; 724 ; 121 ; 633	Ghonsari 5-0
1085 Pocarī ; SGR ; पोचरी	N ; 23-0	2·9 ; 439 ; 91 ; 326	Wandri 4-0
1086 Poīp ; MLV ; पोईप	E ; 17-0	5·6 ; 1814 ; 368 ; 1255	Local ...
1087 Pokharaṇ ; KDL ; पोखरण	NE ; 18-0	4·3 ; 1067 ; 227 ; 993	Kasal 4-0
1088 Pombhurle ; DGD ; पोंभुर्ले	E ; 21-0	5·2 ; 1838 ; 216 ; 1421	Korle 4-0
1089 Pomeṇḍi Bk ; RTN ; पोमेंडी बुद्रुक	E ; 4-0	2·8 ; 1143 ; 241 ; 519	Someshwar 3-0
1090 Pomeṇḍi Kh. ; RTN. ; पोमेंडी खुर्द	E ; 4-0	2·2 ; 713 ; 128 ; 353	Karle 2-0
1091 Pomeṇḍī ; GHR. ; पोमेंडी	SE ; 6-0	4·5 ; 1019 ; 224 ; 816	Palshet 2-0
1092 Pophaḷavaṇe ; DPL. ; पोफळवणे	SE ; 20-0	3·1 ; 1080 ; 205 ; 777	Local ...
1093 Pophaḷī ; CLN. ; पोफळी	E ; 12-0	9·4 ; 1465 ; 278 ; 1333	Shirgaon 2-0
1094 Posare Bk. ; KD. ; पोसरे बुद्रुक	SE ; 25-0	2·0 ; 799 ; 143 ; 773	Dhamnand 3-4

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	88-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	6-0	...	8-2	w.	4 tl.
					Ratnagiri	7-0		
Kolhapur	82-0	Phungus	Tue.	3-0	...	9-0	w. ; rsr	Sl (pr.) ; Cs (mp). ; (Vithoba Fr.) ; Krt. Sud. 11. ; 4tl.
					...	...		
Karad	92-0	Wakaoli	...	1-4	Palgad	2-0	w. ; str.	Sl (pr). ; 6tl. ; mq. ; 4dg.
					Harnai	17-0		
Kolhapur	65-0	Kankavli	Tue.	4-0	Kankavli	5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Gangoba Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; 4tl.
					Malvan	26-0		
Kolhapur	56-0	Phonda	Mon.	7-0	Nandgaon	4-0	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl.
					Deogad	27-0		
Kolhapur	81-0	Phungus	Tue.	6-0	Bandri	3-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 3tl.
					..	...		
Kolhapur	100-0	Masade	Wed.	1-0	Masade	1-0	t. ; w.	5Sl (5pr). ; pyt. ; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10. ; 7tl. ; 2m. ; dh. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
					Malvan	16-0		
Kolhapur	75-0	Kasal	Thu.	4-0	Kasal	4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 9tl. ; M. ; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. Kt. Vad. 30.
					Vengurla	4-0		
Kolhapur	64-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	9-0	Vijaydurg	29-0	w. ; cl.	2Sl (2pr). ; Cs (mp). ; Datta Jayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; 7tl. ; mq. ; dh. ; 2dp.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	85-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	8-0	..	4-0	w. ; cl.	3Sl (3pr). ; Cs. ; 2tl.
					Ratnagiri	8-0		
Kolhapur	85 0	Ratnagiri	Daily	8-0	Local	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl. ; dh.
					Ratnagiri	5-0		
Karad	85-0	......	..	...	Guhagar	6-0	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 3tl.
					Palshet	4-0		
Karad	107-0	Local	...	...	Degaon	6-0	pl. ; pit.	2Sl (2pr). ; pyt. ; 3tl. , mq. ; dg. ; lib.
					Dabhol	18-0		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	12-0	w.	3Sl (3pr). ; pyt. ; Ankuskhan Ur. Mg. Sud. 15. ; 4tl. ; mq ; 2dg.
					...	...		
Karad	77-0	Chiplun	...	12-0	Bahadur Shaikh.	13-0	w. ; pit.	2Sl (2pr). ; 3tl.
					...	...		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
1095 Posare Kh.; KD.; पोसरे खुर्द	SE ;	28-0	1·0 ;	256 ;	58 ;	256.	Dhamnand	5-0
1096 Posare ; CLN.; पोसरे	...	...	2·1 ;	1119 ;	208 ;	861.	Chiveli	4-0
1097 Poyanār ; KD.; पोयनार	W ;	5-0	4·2 ;	1312 ;	256 ;	1279.	Dhamani	1-0
1098 Poyare ; DGD.; पोयरे	S ;	26-0	5·8 ;	863 ;	180 ;	802.	Munage	6-0
1099 Prabhānvallī ; LNJ.; प्रभानवल्ली	E ;	15-0	9·2 ;	2723 ;	540 ;	2039.	Local	...
1100 Prindāvan ; RJP.; प्रिंदावन	S ;	14-0	3·4 ;	871 ;	175 ;	550.	Korle	3-0
1101 Pural ; DGD.; पुरळ	N ;	10-0	5·1 ;	2159 ;	394 ;	1258.	Local	...
1102 Pure Kh.; KD.; पुरे खुर्द	E ;	17-0	0·7 ;	203 ;	34 ;	203.	Tale	4-0
1103 Pure Bk.; KD.; पुरे बुद्रुक	...	...	1·4 ;	315 ;	69 ;	315.	Tale	3-0
1104 Pulas ; KDL.; पुळस	E ;	24-0	4·8 ;	231 ;	56 ;	231.	Mangaon	10-0
1105 Punas Mauje ; LNJ.; मौजे-पुनस	NW ;	9-0	4·4 ;	1103 ;	238 ;	939.	Lanje	6-0
1106 Pūr ; SGR.; पूर	W ;	1-4	1·2 ;	702 ;	125 ;	702.	Deorukh	2-0
1107 Pūrṇagaḍ ; RTN.; पूर्णगड	S ;	13-0	0·2 ;	548 ;	109 ;	259.	Local	...
1108 Pūrye Tarf Devaḷe ; SGR.; पूर्ये तर्फ देवळे	S ;	10-0	4·3 ;	738 ;	129 ;	727.	Sakharpa	0-4
1109 Pūrye Tarf Savarḍe ; SGR.; पूर्ये तर्फ सावर्डे	SW ;	30-0	3·3 ;	649 ;	130 ;	644.	Veer	4-0

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.		Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities ;	Institutions and other information.
Karad	78-0	Chiplun ...	12-0	Chiplun	20-0	rv.	3tl.
				...	...		
Karad	50-0	....	...	Chiplun	11-0	w.	2Sl (2pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 ; 4 tl. ; mq. ; dh.
				...	...		
Karad	97-0	Khed ...	6-0	Phurus	3-0	w.	3Sl (3pr). ; 4tl.
				...	...		
Kolhapur	90-0	Achare Thu.	2-0	Mithbaon	8-0	w. ; cl.	4Sl (4pr). ; 2tl.
				...	...		
Kolhapur	94-0	Lanje Tue.	14-0	Local	...	w.	4Sl (4pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Umareshwar Fr. Mg. Vad 14. ; 5tl. ; lib.
				Ratnagiri	40-0		
Kolhapur	93-0	Kharepatan Tue.	6-0	...	...	w.	2Sl (2pr). ; pyt. ; 6tl.
				Musakaji	23-0		
Kolhapur	85-0	Padel Wd.	2-0	Vijaydurg	10-0	w.	3Sl (2pr, m). ; pyt. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 8tl. ; ch. ; lib.
				...	...		
Karad	93-0	Khed	10-0	Khed	15-0	w.	
				..	.		
Karad	93-0	Khed ...	10-0	Khed	15-0	spr.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
				...	...		
Belgaum	75-0	Dukanwad Sun.	4-0	Keravade K. Narur		w. ; p	Sl (pr.). ; Pavanai Fr. Ps. Vad. 15. ; 4tl.
				Vengurla	20-0		
Kolhapur	88-0	Harcheri Mon.	6-0	Local	..	w. ; t.	2Sl (2pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (fmg. th). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 3tl. ; mq.
				Ratnagiri	28-0		
Kolhapur	63-0	Deorukh Sun.	2-0	Deorukh	2-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl.
				...	...		
Kolhapur	95-0	Local Daily	..	Local	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs (fmg). ; 4tl. ; mq. ; dh. ; lib. ; dp. ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct Sud. 9. ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; Mahashivratra Mg. Vad. 14. ; One Fort.
				Local	..		
Kolhapur	53-0	Sakharpa Sat.	0-4	...	1-0	w.	Sl (pr). Bhavani. : Fr. Mg. Sud. 15. ; 4tl.
				...	..		
Kolhapur	93-0	Makhjan Sat.	5-0	Makhjan	4-0	w.	2Sl (2pr). ; 4tl.
				...	...		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1110 Rāi ; RTN. ; राई	E ; 28–0	2·1 ; 796 ; 160 ; 588.	Malgund 14–0
1111 Rājāpūr ; RJP. ; राजापूर	HQ ; ...	0·8 ; 8023 ; 1383 ; 1137.	Local ...
1112 Rājāpūr ; DPL. ; राजापूर	N ; 10–0	1·8 ; 238 ; 59 ; 231.	Anjarle 8–0
1113 Rājavāḍi ; RJP. ; राजवाडी	... ...	0·6 ; 436 ; 101 ; 362.	Wadanavedar 5–0
1114 Rājavāḍi ; SGR. ; राजवाडी	N ; 20–0	1·4 ; 616 ; 113 ; 616.	Kadavai 3–0
1115 Rājivalī ; SGR. ; राजिवली	E ; 36–0	3·6 ; 638 ; 132 ; 580.	Kuthare 4–0
1116 Rāmagaḍ ; MLV ; रामगड	NE ; 22–0	2·3 ; 870 ; 174 ; 674.	Local ...
1117 Rāmapūr ; CLN ; रामपूर	SW ; 10–0	4·2 ; 1419 ; 269 ; 1309.	Local ...
1118 Rānabāmbūlī ; KDL ; रानबांबूली	N ; 9–0	3·0 ; 878 ; 159 ; 769.	Kasal 4–0
1119 Rāngav ; SGR ; रांगव	N ; 21–0	2·2 ; 585 ; 115 ; 428.	Kadavai ...
1120 Rānavaḷī ; MDG ; रानवळी	W ; 18–0	1·4 ; 113 ; 36 ; 52.	Bankot 4–0
1121 Rānavī ; GHR ; रानवी	N ; 5–0	1·5 ; 468 ; 173 ; 465.	Peth Anjanwel [illegible]
1122 Rātāmbī ; SGR ; रातांबी	E ; 39–0	2·4 ; 233 ; 46 ; 223	[illegible] [illegible]
1123 Rāṭhīvaḍe ; MLV ; राठीवडे	E ; 20–0	2·8 ; 851 ; 17[illegible] ; 412.	[illegible] [illegible]

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	91-0	Phungus	Tue.	8-0	...	8-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3tl. ; dh ;Sea port.
					Jaigad	130-0		
Kolhapur	80-0	Local	Wed.	...	Local	...	w. ; pl.	7 Sl (pr, 5m, mp). ; Mun. ; Shri Dev Vithoba Fr. Asd. Sud. 11. ; 14 tl. ; M. ; 12 mq. 17 dg.; 2dh. ; 2 lib. ; 7 dp. ; Moharam.; Kalamandeer.
					Musakaji	18-0		
Karad	118-0	Anjarle	..	6-0	Harnai	4-0	cl.	2 tl.
					Harnai	10-0		
Kolhapur	95-0	Rajapur	Wed.	14-0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Musakaji	6-0		
Kolhapur	78-0	Makhjan	Sat.	7-0	...	1-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Bhavani Fr. Psh. Sud. 15; Mg. Sud 15 Mahashivratra Someshwar Fr. ; 4 tl. ; Fort Bhawangad. ; Hot springs.
					...	...		
Karad	98-0	Makhjan	Sat.	14-0	...	11-0	w., str.	2 Sl(2pr.). Vithoba Fr. Kt. Sud. 11 ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	69-0	Local	Mon.	...	...	.	rv. ; w. cl.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 5 tl. ; dh. ; lib.; dp. ; Fort. ; Sarvodaya Centre.
					.	...		
Karad	70-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	10-0	t ; w.	2 Sl (2pr). ; Cs (mp). ; Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 6 tl. ; dh. ; dp.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	70-0	Kasal	Thu.	4-0	Local	..	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 8. ; 6 tl. ; M.
					Malvan	24-0		
Kolhapur	78-0	Makhjan	Sat.	7-0	..	4-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Mumbra	115-0	Panderi	Thu.	15-0	Dasgaon	32-0	spr.	tl. ; dg. ;
					Bankot	2-0		
Karad	90-0	-	...	...	Guhagar	6-0	w. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; tl.. dg.
					Dabhol	4-0		
Karad	96-0	Makhjan	Sat.	7 0	...	13-0	w. ; str.	Sl (m).
					...	...		
Kolhapur	100-0	Masade	Wed.	3-4	Masade	2-0	rv.	Dasara Fr. An. Sud 10. ; 5tl. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
					Malvan	14-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1124 Rāvārī ; LNJ ; रावारी	W ; 8-0	0·3 ; 410 ; 95 ; 304.	Satavli 6-0
1125 Rāvatoḷī ; DPL ; रावतोळी	N ; 22-0	0·8 ; 274 ; 73 ; 274.	Kelshi 5-0
1126 Rāyapāṭaṇ ; RJP ; रायपाटण	E ; 16-0	5·1 ; 1805 ; 350 ; 1533.	Local ...
1127 Rēḍī ; VGR ; रेडी	S ; 10-0	4·6 ; 4183 ; 844 ; 1772.	Local ...
1128 Rēmbavalī ; DGD ; रेंबवली	SE ; 22-0	1·6 ; 259 ; 53 ; 250.	Bidwadi 5-0
1129 Rēvalī ; DPL ; रेवली	NW ; 10-0	1·9 ; 299 ; 67 ; 262.	Kelshi 2-4
1130 Rēvaṇḍī ; MLV ; रेवंडी	N ; 3-0	1·7 ; 2412 ; 622 ; 596.	Kolar 1-0
1131 Rikaṭolī ; CLN ; रिकटोली	E ; 16-0	2·1 ; 487 ; 93 ; 445.	Morawane 3-0
1132 Rīḷ ; RTN ; रीळ	N ; 17-0	1·4 ; 677 ; 136 ; 319.	Waravde 0-2
1133 Ringaṇe ; LNJ ; रिंगणे	SE ; 22-0	5·0 ; 1612 ; 317 ; 1272.	Raypatan 9-0
1134 Rohilē ; GHR ; रोहिलें	N ; 18-0	0·1 ; 25 ; 5 ; 12.	Narwan 2-0
1135 Roṇāpāl ; SWT. ; रोणापाल	SW ; 11-0	2·3 ; 427 ; 86 ; 379.	Madure 1-0
1136 Rovalē ; DPL. ; रोवलें	NW ; 19-0	1·3 ; 372 ; 81 ; 283.	Anjarle 10-0

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 90-0	Lanje Tue. 10-0	... 8-0	cl.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 3 tl.
		Ratnagiri 37-0		
Karad 121-0	Kelshi ... 5-0	... ...	w.	tl.
		Harnai 10-0		
Kolhapur 101-0	Pachal Sun. 2-0	Oni 11-0	w. rv.	3 Sl (3pr). ; pyt. ; 6 tl. ; 2 m. ; 2dp.
		Musakaji 34-0		
Belgaum 82-0	Shiroda Sun. 1-4	Vengurla 10-0	w. ; t.	6 Sl (6 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 13 tl. ; M. ; dg. ; dh. ; 2 lib. ; Cch ; Shri Devi Mauli Fr. Kt. Vad. 30. ; Shri Dev Siddh Fr. Mrg. Sud. 8. ; Shri Dev Saptpurush Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15. ; Shri Dev Nagoba Fr. Mrg. Sud. 7. ; Shri Dev Navadurga Fr. Mg. Sud. 9. ; Yeshwantgad Fort. ; Iron Ore.
		Vengurla 12-0		
Kolhapur 74-0	Tale Bazar Thu. 9-0	Deogad 14-0	cl.	3 tl.
		... ...		
Karad 119-0	Kelshi ... 2-4	... ...	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 to Vad. 5. ; 2 tl.
		Harnai 14-0		
Kolhapur 94-0	Hadi Sat. 4-0	Hadi 5-0	...	2 Sl (pr, m). ; pyt. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; lib. ; Village Fr. Kt. Vad. 2.
		Malvan 4-0		
Karad 65-0	....	Chiplun 16-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 2 tl.
		... ...		
Kolhapur 102-0	Saitavade Sat. 8-0	... 4-0	w.	Sl (pr.). ; Cs (mp). ; 5 tl.
		Tivari 2-0		
Kolhapur 94-0	Pachel Sun. 6-0	Watul 10-0	rv. ; w.	3 Sl (3pr). ; Shri Kedarling Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10. ; 6 tl. ; 3 M. ; Shri Kedarling Fr. Kt. Sud 15. ; Phg. Sud. 15. ; Shri Dev. Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; Shri Dev Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9.
		Ratnagiri 43-0		
Karad 105-0	....	Makhjan 17-0	w.	
		Jaigad 6-0		
Belgaum 71-0	Banda Mon. 3-0	Banda 5-0	w. cs.	(mp); tl.
		Vengurla 15-0		
Karad 112-0	Anjarle ... 10-0	Harnai 8-0	w. ; cl.	Gavdevi Fr. ct. Sud. 3.; tl.
		Harnai 8-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1139 Rukhi ; DPL. ; रुखी	SE ; 13–0	2·1 ; 624 ; 135 ; 529.	Wakavli 5–0
1140 Ruṇ ; LNJ. ; रुण	SW ; 11–0	4·1 ; 1130 ; 237 ; 853.	Satavli 12–0
1141 Ruṇḍhe ; RJP. ; रुंढे	W ; 14–0	2·8 ; 437 ; 97 ; 282.	Wadanavedar 3–0
1142 Saḍave ; DPL. ; सडवे	SE ; 6–0	2·3 ; 588 ; 145 ; 243.	Camp—Dapoli 5–0
1143 Saḍavalī ; DPL. ; सडवली	SE ; 5–0	1·4 198 ; 50 ; 163	Camp—Dapoli 6–0
1144 Saḍavalī ; SGR. ; सडवली	S ; 1–0	2·8 ; 960 ; 196 ; 798.	Deorukh ; 7–0
1145 Saḍe ; MDG. ; सडे	E ; 7–0	1·6 ; 549 ; 127 ; 529.	Mandangad 7–0
1146 Saḍyē ; RTN. ; सडयें	N ; 6–7	0·5 ; 328 ; 64 ; 241.	Kotavde 1–0
1147 Sāgave ; RJP. ; सागवे	SW ; 16–0	11·7 ; 4761 ; 923 ; 1866.	Local ...
1148 Saitavaḍe ; RTN. ; सैतवडे	N ; 36–0	2·1 ; 3067 ; 692 ; 282.	Local ; ...
1149 Sākhalakoṇḍ ; SGR. ; साखळकोंड	NW ; 12–4	0·5 ; 169 ; 33 ; 160.	Navdi 2–0
1150 Sākhaḷolī ; DPL. ; साखळोली	E ; 7–0	4·9 ; 1532 ; 334 ; 1327.	Wakavli 2–4
1151 Sākhar ; KD. ; साखर	SE ; 28–0	3·4 ; 897 ; 171 ; 873·	Dhamnand 6–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand: Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	100-0	Wakaoli	...	5-0	Degaon	5-0	w.	Sl (pr.); Kalkai Fr. Ct. Sud. 3.; 2tl.; mq.; dg.
					Dabhol	14-0		
Kolhapur	85-0	Lanje	Tue.	12-0	...	10-0	w.; rv.	2 Sl (2pr.); pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.
					Purnagad	16-0		
Kolhapur	101-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	Rajapur	14-0	cl.; w.	tl.
					Musakaji	11-0		
Karad	104-0	Camp-Dapoli	...	5-0	Dapoli	4-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr.); Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 5, Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 9; tl.
					Harnai	17-0		
Karad	104-0	Camp-Dapoli	...	6-0	...	...	rv	Sl (pr.); 2 tl.
					Harnai	15-0		
Kolhapur	...	Local	Sun	...	Sangameshwar	1-0	w.	Sl (pr.); 3 tl.
					...	...		
Mumbra	120-0	Mhapral	Fri.	8-4	...	...	w.	Sl (pr.); 2 tl.
					Mhapral	12-0		
Kolhapur	75-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	9-0	...	3-6	w.	Sl (pr.)
					Ratnagiri	7-0		
Kolhapur	96-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	24-0	..	...	w.; t.	6 Sl (6 pr.); Pyt.; 2Cs; Shri Dev Pir Moni Mamaya Us. on 9th of April, Shri Katradevi Fr. Ps. Vad. 7.; 8 tl.; 3 mq.; 2 dp.
					Musakaji	10-0		
Kolhapur	116-0	Local	Sat.	...	...	1-0	w.; t	3 Sl (3pr.); pyt.; Cs; 6 tl.; 5 mq. 4 dg.; ch.; lib.; 2 dp.
					Jaigad	8-0		
Kolhapur	73-0	Nawdi	Wed.	2-0	Sangameshwar.	2-4	n.; rsr.	
					...	...		
Karad	94-0	Wakaoli	...	2-4	Dapoli	8-0	w.	Sl (pr.); pyt.; 6 tl.
					Harnai	13-0		
Karad	78-0	Chiplun	...	12-0	Khopi	6-4	rv	Sl (pr.); Shri Dev Kalakai Fr. Ct. Vad. 5.; 3 tl.
					...	...		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1152 Sākhar ; RJP. ; साखर	S ; 10-0	4·0 ; 1471 ; 350 ; 1471.	Ansure 7-0
1153 Sākhari ; MDG. ; साखरी	W ; 22-0	1·6 ; 150 ; 38 ; 77.	Kelshi 4-0
1154 Sākhari Āgar ; GHR. ; साखरी आगर	S ; 15-0	1·3 ; 1165 ; 245 ; 489.	Hedwi ; 3-0
1155 Sākhari Bk. ; GHR. ; साखरी बुद्रुक	NE ; 7-0	2·6 ; 598 ; 118 ; 523.	Dabhol 4-0
1156 Sākhari Kh. ; GHR. ; साखरी खुर्द	NE ; 7-0	2·1 ; 417 ; 74 ; 346.	Pewe 3-0
1157 Sākhari Mauje ; RJP. ; साखरी मौजे	W ; 17-0	0·1 ; 223 ; 59 ; 96.	Kelshi 1-0
1158 Sākhari Triśul ; GHR. ; साखरी त्रिशुळ	N ; 8-0	3·6 ; 1247 ; 316 ; 662.	Pewe 3-0
1159 Sākharoḷī ; KD. ; साखरोळी	SW ; 4-0	3·2 ; 1489 ; 302 ; 1031.	Local ...
1160 Sākharpā ; SGR. ; साखरपा	E ; 10-0	4·8 ; 1302 ; 264 ; 1153.	Kondgaon ...
1161 Sākurḍe ; DPL. ; साकुर्डे	N ; 10-0	4·1 ; 846 ; 198 ; 747.	Kudawale 6-0
1162 Sāladure ; DPL. ; सालदुरे	W ; 6-0	0·6 ; 327 ; 64 ; 269.	Murud 1-0
1163 Sāḷagānv ; KDL. ; साळगांव	E ; 7-0	13·9 ; 2975 ; 618 ; 2595.	Local ...
1164 Sāḷaśī ; DGD. ; साळशी	E ; 20-0	1·3 ; 1388 ; 289 ; 1023.	Local ...
1165 Sālaṣṭe ; KVL. ; सालष्ट	N ; 16-0	2·5 ; 737 ; 135 ; 631.	Talere 3-0
1166 Sāḷel ; MLV. ; साळेल	S ; 9-0	2·8 ; 734 ; 176 ; 488.	Chauke 2-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	80-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	...	8-0	n. ; w.	3 Sl (3 pr.) ; pyt. ; tl.
					Musakaji	11-0		
Mumbra	130-0	Panderi	Thu.	18-0	Anjarle	8-0	w. ; n.	Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl. ; 2 dg.; dh.
					Bankot	5-0		
Karad	98-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	12-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; pyt. ; 2 tl. ; lib.
					Borya	3-0		
Karad	85-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	6-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; Cs. ; 3 tl.
					Dabhol	5-0		
Karad	86-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	6-0	w.	Cs (cr.) ; tl.
					Dabhol	5-0		
Kolhapur	100-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	......	...	w.	Sl (pr.) ; tl. ; ch.
					Musakaji	8-0		
Karad	88-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	11-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr.) ; 2 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
					Dabhol	4-0		
Karad	89-0	Khed	...	3-0	Local	...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr.) ; Urs. ; M. ; 2 tl. ; 3 mq. ; dg.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	51-0	Local	Sat.	...	...	0-4	w.	3 Sl (3 pr.) ; 5 tl. ; mq.
					...	...		
Karad	105-0	Kudawale	...	6-0	Dapoli	6-0	w. ; rv spr.	Sl (pr.) ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 to Vad 5. ; tl.
					Harnai	17-0		
Karad	107-0	Murud	...	1-0	Harnai	4-0	w.	tl.
					Harnai	3-0		
Belgaum	69-0	Mangaon	Tue.	2-0	Zarap	1-0	w.	3 Sl (pr. 2m.) ; pyt. ; Cs (mp).; Shri Dev. Mauli Fr. Kt. Sud. 1. ; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	17-0		
Kolhapur	72-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	8-0	Deogad	16-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr.). ; Cs (mp). ; Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10 ; 7 tl. ; 2dh. ; lib. ;
					...	...		
Kolhapur	85-0	Talare ;	Tue.	3-0	Local	..	w.	Sl (pr.) ; Vithoba Saptah Kt. Sud. 11. ; 3 tl. ; gym.
					Vijaydurg	33-0		
Kolhapur	82-0	Katta	Fri.	4-0	Ambdos	1-0	w. ; n.	2 Sl (pr. m). ; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Sud. 9. ; 2 tl. ; dh.
					Malvan	8-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name : Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office Distance	
1166 Sandakhol ; RTN. ; संदखोल	N ;	38-0	0·4 ;	160 ;	28 ;	32.	Jaigad	4-0
1167 Saṇḍe Lavagaṇ ; RTN. ; सांडे लवगण	N ;	38-0	1·4 ;	397 ;	89 ;	115.	Jaigad	2-0
1168 Saṅgalaṭ ; KD. ; संगलट	SW ;	6-0	2·7 ;	891 ;	180 ;	552.	Mumbake	3-0
1169 Saṇaghar ; KD. ; सणघर	SW ;	14-0	1·1 ;	252 ;	43 ;	190.	Mahalunge	2-0
1170 Saṅgameśvar ; SGR. ; संगमेश्वर	S ;	11-0	2·5 ;	3494 ;	725 ;	920.	Local	...
1171 Sāṅgave; KVL. ; सांगवे	W ;	7-3	5·1 ;	2455 ;	530 ;	1289.	Bhiravande	2-0
1172 Sāṅgave ; SGR. ; सांगवे	W ;	6-0	2·4 ;	613 ;	127 ;	570.	Kondkadamrao	3-0
1173 Sāṅgelī ; SWT. ; सांगेली	E ;	13-0	13·9 ;	2144 ;	459 ;	1756.	Danoli	4-0
1174 Sākirḍe ; KDL. ; साकिर्डे	E ;	24-0	1·0 ;	7 ;	1 ;	1.	Mangaon	12-0
1175 Sānkeḍī ; KVL. ; सांकेडी	NE ;	5-0	2·5 ;	1221 ;	253 ;	1069.	Taradale	6-0
1176 Sāṇṭhare ; RTN. ; सांठरे	NE ;	17-0	3·2 ;	1169 ;	221 ;	1034.	Pali	4-0
1177 Sāntulī ; SWT. ; सांतुली	E ;	9-0	1·7 ;	573 ;	116 ;	303.	Danoli	2-0
1178 Sāpirlī ; KD. ; सापीर्ली	SE ;	34-0	4·7 ;	507 ;	108 ;	471.	Dhamnand	13-0
1179 Sarabaḷ ; KDL. ; सरबळ	NW ;	4-0	3·4 ;	2331 ;	347 ;	1995.	Local	...
1180 Sarand ; SGR. ; सरंद	NW ;	29-0	1·4 ;	607 ;	111 ;	556.	Makhjan	1-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	101-0	Jaigad	Daily	4-0	... Jaigad	12-0 4-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	102-0	Saitavade;	Sat.	10-0	... Jaigad	... 4-0	cl. w.	2 tl.; dh.
Karad	91-0	Khed	...	5-0	Khed ...	8-0 ...	w.	2 Sl. (2 pr).; tl.; mq.; dg.
Karad	100-0	Khed	...	10-0	Khed ...	10-0 ...	rv.	Sl. (pr).; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	73	Bazar	Wed.	...	... ...	0-4 ...	pl.; w.; t	6 Sl. (4 pr. 2 h.).; Cs.; 7 tl.; 3 mq.; 3 dg.; 2 dp. (1) Rest-place of Shri Sambhaji Maharaj. (2) Tomb erected in his memory.
Kolhapur	68-0	Local	Sun.	...	Kankavli Deogad	8-0 50-0	w.	6 Sl. (5 pr., m).; 2 tl.; dh.; lib. 3 dp.; Cch.; Nam Saptah Mg. Sud. 9.; Shimga Phg. Sud. 15.
Kolhapur	66-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	14-0	Deorukh	6-0	w.	Sl. (m).; tl.
Belgaum	59-0	Danoli	Sun.	4-0	Sawantwadi Vengurla	10-4 25-0	w.	2 Sl. (2 pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Ps. Sud. 15.; 5 tl.
Belgaum	80-0	Dukanwad	Sun.	1-0	Nerur K. Narur. Vengurla	3-0 24-0	rv.	......
Kolhapur	70-0	Kankavli	Tue.	6-0	Humbrat Deogad	3-0 40-0	w.; rv.	Sl. (pr).; pyt.; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Vad. 9; 4 tl.; mq.; dh.; lib.
Kolhapur	67-0	Harcheri	Mon.	13-0	... .	... 4-0 ...	w. cl.	Sl. (pr).; pyt.
Belgaum	76-0	Danoli	Sun.	2-0	Local Vengurla	.. 18-0	w.; rv.	2 Sl. (2 pr).; Cs. (mp).; Shri Dev Sateri Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.; 6 tl.; dh.; Shri Satam Maharaj Fr. Mrg. Vad. 30.
Karad	87-0	Chiplun	...	12-0	Chiplun ...	12-0 ...	rv.	Sl. (pr)., 3 tl.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	3-0	Kudal Vengurla	4-0 18-0	w.	5 Sl. (5 pr).; pyt.; Sateri Fr. Kt. Sud. 10.; 6 tl.; M.
Kolhapur	88-0	Malkhjan	Sat.	1-0	Stage ...	... ...	w.; t.	2 Sl. (pr; h).; 3 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office : Distance.	
1181 Saragave ; SWT. ; सरगवे	E ;	38-0	3·6 ;	299 ;	58 ;	285.	Bhedshi	8-0
1182 Saramale ; SWT. ; सरमळे	SE ;	9-0	3·0	603 ;	127 ;	477.	Tamboli	3-0
1183 Sārang ; DPL. ; सारंग	NW ;	6-0	4·3 ;	1261 ;	291.	700.	Camp-Dapoli	6-0
1184 Sasāle ; RJP. ; ससाळें	E ;	8-0	1·8 ;	651 ;	126 ;	484.	Rajapur	5-0
1185 Sāsoli ; SWT. ; सासोली	SE ;	19-0	4·1 ;	1095 ;	257 ;	783.	Kalne	4-0
1186 Satakonḍi ; RTN. ; सतकोंडी	N ;	34-0	1·4 ;	411 ;	109 ;	385.	Saitavade	3-0
1187 Sālape ; LNJ. ; साल्पे	E ;	10-0	4·7 ;	1797 ;	335 ;	1692.	Shiposhi ;	1-0
1188 Sātarḍā ; SWT. ; सातर्डा	S ;	17-0	5·0 ;	2136 ;	434 ;	1339.	Aronda	8-0
1189 Sāṭavali ; LNJ. ; साटवली	SW ;	11-5	2·3 ;	1395 ;	300 ;	841.	Local	...
1190 Sāṭeli Tarf Sātarḍā ; SWT. ; साटेली तर्फ सातर्डा	SW ;	15-0	3·0 ;	1338 ;	262 ;	1299.	Bhedshi	1-0
1191 Sāṭeli Bhedaśi ; SWT. ; साटेली भेडशी	NE ;	29-0	2·2 ;	557 ;	103 ;	402.	Aronda	5-0
1192 Sātere Tarf Haveli ; DPL. ; सातेरे तर्फ हवेली	S ;	12-0	0·8 ;	205 ;	42	128.	Dabhol	5-0
1193 Sātere Tarf Nātū ; DPL. ; सातेरे तर्फ नातू	E ;	18-0	1·3 ;	584 ;	117 ;	578.	Palgad	6-0
1194 Sātose ; SWT. ; सातोसे	S ;	18-0	1·6 ;	1097 ;	205 ;	1034.	Madure	6-0
1195 Sātral ; KVL. ; सात्रळ	SW ;	2-0	1·4 ;	494 ;	97 ;	451.	Kankavli	4-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	40-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	8-0	Konalkatta	6-0	w.	Sl. (pr). ; tl.
					Vengurla	52-0		
Belgaum	72-0	Banda	Mon.	5-0	Sawant-wadi.	7-0	rv.	2 Sl. (2 pr.). ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Vad. 6 ; tl.
Karad	105-0	Camp-Dapoli	...	6-0	Dapoli Harnai	4-0 9-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl. (2 pr). ; 4 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
					Vengurla	23-0		
Kolhapur	112-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	Kondye ;	5-0	w.	Sl. (pr). ; pyt. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; tl.
					Musakaji	74-0		
Belgaum	84-0	Banda	Mon.	12-0	Banda	11-0	w. ; n.	Sl. (pr). ; 4 tl.
					Vengurla	26-0		
Kolhapur	117-0	Saitavade	Sat.	3-0	...	1-4	rv.	Sl. (m). ; Cs. ; tl.
					Jaigad	8-0		
Kolhapur	59-0	Shiposhi	Sun.	1-0	Local	...	o.	3 Sl. (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (cr) Dhavaba Fr. Kt. Vad. 15. ; 3 tl.
					Ratnagiri	32-0		
Belgaum	71-0	Banda	Mon.	8-0	Local	...	w.	2 Sl. (pr.). ; pyt. ; 4 tl. ; M. ; dh. Cch.
					Vengurla	18-0		
Kolhapur	91-0	Local	Sat.	...	...	12-0	w.	Pyt. ; Cs. (mp). ; Ur. ; 3 tl. ; 2mq. ; dg.
					Purnagad	8-0		
Belgaum	93-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	1-0	Satarda	2-0	w. ; n.	Sl. (pr). ; pyt. ; 3 tl.
					Vengurla	16-0		
Belgaum	77-0	Aronda	Sat.	5-0	Satarda	2-0	w. ; rv.	Sl. (pr). Cs. (mp.) ; tl. ; Cch.
					Vengurla	16-0		
Karad	104-0	Dabhol	...	5-0	Dabhol	6-0	w.	Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	7-0		
Karad	122-0	Palgad	...	6-0	Palgad	4-0	w.	Sl. (pr). ; 4 tl.
					Harnai	28-0		
Belgaum	81-0	Banda	Mon.	8-0	Satarda	2-0	w.	3 Sl. (3 pr). ; Shri Dev. Mauli Fr. Mrg. Vad. 3. ; 2 tl ; M.
					Vengurla	17-0		
Kolhapur	64-0	Kankavli	Tue.	4-0	Kankavli	3-0	w.	Sl. (pr). Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Vad. 30. ; 3tl. ; lib.
					Malvan	24-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1195 Sātviṅgāṅv ; KD. ; सात्वींणगांव	S ; 9-3	2·9 ; 524 ; 113 ; 500.	Shiv Bk. 4-0
1196 Saundal ; RJP. ; सौंदळ	E ; 10-0	5·6 ; 1860 ; 406 ; 1649.	Local ...
1197 Sāvḍāṅv ; KVL. ; सावडांव	NW ; 5-0	5·7 ; 1516 ; 319 ; 1307.	Taradale 2-0
1198 Sāvḍāṅv ; RJP. ; सावडांव	E ; 24-0	3·1 ; 358 ; 70 ; 358.	Kharepatan 12-0
1199 Savaṇas ; KD. ; सवणस	S ; 12-0	3·7 ; 1828 ; 388 ; 1132.	Local ...
1200 Sāvantavāḍī ; SWT. ; सावंतवाडी	HQ ; ...	0·7 ; 12451 2584 ; 824.	Local ...
1201 Sāvarḍe ; CLN. ; सावर्डे	S ; 10-0	6·4 ; 3369 ; 685 ; 2657.	Local ...
1202 Sāvarī ; MDG. ; सावरी	W ; 9-0	3·5 ; 804 ; 199 ; 673.	Mandangad 8-0
1203 Saveṇī ; KD. ; सवेणी	E ; 7-0	2·6 ; 1067 ; 191 ; 853.	Lavel 3-0
1204 Sāyale ; SGR. ; सायले	NE ; 6-0	2·3 ; 768 ; 141 ; 755.	Deorukh 5-0
1205 Śeḍavaī ; MDG. ; शेडवई	S ; 6-0	2·3 ; 506 ; 122 ; 487.	Palawni 2-0
1206 Śeḍhe ; RJP. ; शेढे	S ; 2-0	1·7 ; 570 ; 117 ; ...	Dongar 2-0
1207 Śejavalī ; RJP. ; शेजवली	SE ; 12-0	2·3 ; 540 ; 115 ; 479.	Korle 7-0
1208 Śelaḍī ; KD. ; शेलडी	E ; 7-0	4·6 ; 1217 ; 241 ; 1170.	Lavel 5-0
1209 Śeṁbavaṇe ; SGR. ; शेंबवणें	N ; 7-0	2·4 ; 681 ; 134 ; 681.	Kadavai 9-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	72-0	Khed	...	8-0	Lavel ...	3-0 ...	w.	Sl. (pr.); 3 tl.
Kolhapur	55-0	Pachal	Sun.	5-0	Pachal Musakaji	5-0 27-0	w.; rv.	3 Sl. (3 pr).; pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 2 tl.; mq.; dg.; dh.
Kolhapur	60-0	Kankavli	Tue.	5-0	Nandgaon Deogad	5-0 24-0	w.	2 Sl. (2 pr.); Tripuri Paurnima Kt. Sud. 15.; 9 tl.
Kolhapur	46-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	12-0	Kharepatan; Musakaji	12-0 37-0	w.	Sl. (pr.); 2 tl.
Karad	70-0	Khed	...	12-0	Khed ...	12-0 ...	w.; pl.	3 Sl. (2 pr. h).; Cs. (mp).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 5 tl.; M. 3 mq.; dg.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Belgaum	62-4	Local	Tue.	...	Local Vengurla	... 17-0	pl.; w.; t.	9 Sl (7 pr. 2h).; mun.; 5 Cs. (con. 4c).; Shri Dev Pathekar Fr. Kt. Vad. 10.; 9 tl.; 3m.; mq.; 4 dg.; 3 dh.; gym.; lib.; 7 dp.; 3 Cch.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	10-0 ...	w.	4 Sl (3 pr. m).; Pyt.; 2 Cs. (mp. mis).; Dattajayanti Fr. Mg. Sud. 15.; 6 tl.; M.; 4 mq.; dh.; ch.; lib.
Mumbra	119-0	Mhapral	Fri.	10-0	... Bankot	... 15-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; Vill. Fr. Ct. Sud. 13.; 3 tl.
Karad	82-0	Khed	...	5-0	Hedli ...	3-0 ...	w.; rv.	Sl (Pr).; 2 tl.; mq.; dg.
Kolhapur	66-0	Deorukh	Sun.	5-0	Deorukh ...	6-0 ...	w.	Sl (Pr).; 4 tl.; lib.
Mumbra	120-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Dapoli Mhapral	15-0 16-0	t.	Sl (Pr).; 4 tl.; Shri Dev Keshar Natha's idol.
Kolhapur	109-0	Rajapur	Wed.	4-0	Rajapur Musakaji	4-0 12-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; tl.
Kolhapur	85-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	2-0	... Musakaji	... 23-0	w.	Sl (Pr).; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt Sud. 15.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud 15.; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10.; tl
Karad	70-0	Chiplun	...	15-0	Khed ...	15-0 ...	w.	Sl (Pr).; Shri Dev Kedar Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, 8 tl. 3 M.
Kolhapur	76-0	Makhjan	Sat.	6-0	... ...	1-0 ...	w.; str.	Sl (Pr); tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1210 Śembavaṇe ; RJP. ; शेंबवणे	E ; 5–4	1·7 ; 433 ; 81 ; 398.	Rajapur 7–0
1211 Śeṇāḷe ; MDG. ; शेणाळे	E ; 6–0	1·7 ; 355 ; 68 ; 302.	Mhapral 5–0
1212 Śeṇavaḍe ; SGR. ; शेणवडे	N ; 21–0	1·6 ; 469 ; 90 ; 424.	Kadavai 5–0
1213 Śeravaḷ ; KD. ; शेरवळ	SW ; 9–0	2·3 ; 699 ; 152 ; 652.	Phurus 3–0
1214 Śerī Gherā Kāmate ; DGD. ; शेरीघेरा कामते	E ; 18–0	0·1 ; 6 ; 1 ; ...	Kot-Kamate 1–0
1215 Śerle ; SWT. ; शेर्ले	S ; 7–0	2·5 ; 1565 ; 327 ; 927.	Insuli 3–0
1216 Śerpe ; KVL. ; शेर्पे	N ; 32–0	2·6 ; 823 ; 153 ; 731.	Nadgive 3–0
1217 Śevare ; DGD. ; शेवरे	NE ; 19–0	1·8 ; 297 ; 59 ; 294.	Shirgaon 3–4
1218 Śevare ; MDG. ; शेवरे	W ; 18–0	1·5 ; 362 ; 89 ; 288.	Kelshi 7–0
1219 Śiḍavaṇe ; KVL. ; शिडवणे	N ; 30–0	3·9 ; 1305 ; 231 ; 1269.	Nadgive 4–0
1220 Śigavaṇ ; MDG. ; शिगवण	W ; 8–0	1·5 ; 298 ; 71 ; 265.	Mandangad 10–0
1221 Śiḷ ; RTN. ; शीळ	E ; 6–0	1·1 ; 339 ; 81 ; 259.	Basani 5–0
1222 Śiḷ ; RJP. ; शीळ	E ; 2–0	2·2 ; 860 ; 170 ; 750.	Rajapur 2–0
1223 Śiṅgarī ; KD. ; शिंगरी	E ; 16–0	8·2 ; 380 ; 85 ; 380.	Tale 6–0
1224 Śinde Amberī ; SGR. ; शिंदे अंबेरी.	N ; 24–0	6·4 ; 234 ; 51 ; 221.	Kadavai 3–0

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	61-0	Rajapur	Wed.	7-0	Rajapur	7-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					Musakaji	23-0		
Mumbra	109-0	Mhapral	Fri.	5-0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					Mhapral	8-0		
Kolhapur	79-0	Makhjan	Sat.	8-0	...	5-0	w.	tl.
					...	...		
Karad	93-0	Khed	...	8-0	Khed	7-0	w.	Sl (pr.).; 4 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	75-0	Tele Bazar	Tue.	4-0	Mithbaon	6-0	w.	
					...	...		
Belgaum	73-0	Banda	Mon.	1-0	Banda	1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15., 3 tl.
					Vengurla	17-0		
Kolhapur	80-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	Kharepatan	6-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4 tl.; mq.
					Vijaydurg	38-0		
Kolhapur	67-4	Shirgaon	Wed.	3-4	Deogad	19-0	cl.; rv.	Cs (mp).; 3 tl.
					...	...		
Mumbra	125-0	Panderi	Thu.	17-0	...	...	...	tl.
					Bankot	10-0		
Kolhapur	85-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	6-0	Wargaon	1-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; tl.
					Vijaydurg	35-0		
Mumbra	110-0	Panderi	Thu.	6-0	..	...	cl.	S (pr).; Maruti Fr. Ct. Vad. ; 2 tl.; mq.
					Bankot	12-0		
Kolhapur	87-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	5-0	Local	...	w; rv.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.; ch.
					Ratnagiri	7-0		
Kolhapur	80-0	Rajapur	Wed.	2-0	..	...	w.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 6 tl.; 2 mq.
					Musakaji.	19-0		
Karad	94-0	Khed	...	15-0	Khed	16-0	w.; rv.; sm.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	90-0	Makhjan	Sat.	8-0	...	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					...	...		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1225 Śipole ; MDG ; शिपोळे	W ; 16-0	1.3 ; 862 ; 183 ; 260.	Bankot 4-0
1226 Śipośī ; LNJ ; शिपोशी	E ; 12-0	3.9 ; 1786 ; 339 ; 1508.	Local ...
1227 Śīr ; GHR ; शीर	SW ; 14-0	6.9 ; 1872 ; 394 ; 1742.	Welamb 8-0
1228 Śirambavalī ; LNJ ; शिरंबवली	E ; 9-0	0.9 ; 282 ; 61 ; 218.	Nanij 2-0
1229 Śirakhal ; DPL ; शिरखळ	NW ; 14-0	3.2 ; 1149 ; 223 ; 1007.	Palgad 2-0
1230 Śirange ; SWT ; शिरंगे	NE ; 34-0	7.6 ; 584 ; 129 ; 556.	Danoli 5-0
1231 Śirasāḍi ; DPL ; शिरसाडी	E ; 18-0	1.2 ; 369 ; 81 ; 389.	Palgad 6-0
1232 Śiraśiṅge ; SWT ; शिरशिंगे	E ; 18-0	11.8 ; 1170 ; 228 ; 1024.	Bhedshi 5-0
1233 Śiraśiṅge ; DPL ; शिरशिंगे	E ; 7-0	1.4 ; 384 ; 66 ; 375.	Wakavli 1-4
1234 Śirasoli ; DPL ; शिरसोली	E ; 12-0	3.8 ; 980 ; 206 ; 902.	Kudawale 3-0
1235 Śiraval ; SWT ; शिरवळ	SE ; 15-0	2.2 ; 190 ; 34 ; 186.	Kalne 6-0
1236 Śiraval ; KVL ; शिरवळ	S ; 5-0	4.2 ; 1439 ; 266 ; 1326.	Kankavli 6-4
1237 Śirḍe ; DPL ; शिर्डे	SE ; 4-0	1.3 ; 314 ; 77 ; 133.	Camp-Dapoli 6-0
1238 Śiravalī ; LNJ ; शिरवली	SE ; 12-0	2.0 ; 1011 ; 167 ; 1000.	Vaked 6-0
1239 Śiravaṇe ; DPL ; शिरवणे	S ; 12-0	1.5 ; 577 ; 128 ; 201.	Dabhol 2-4

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance. Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Mumbra 100-0	Panderi Thu. 8-0	Dasgaon 78-0 Bankot 5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl. ; mq. ; dg.
Kolhapur 50-0	Local Sun. ...	Local ... Ratnagiri 36-0	w. ; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; Cs (cr). ; 4 tl. ; 2 dh. ; dp.
Karad 94-0	....	Guhagar 16-0 Dabhol 25-0	w. ; rv. ; spr.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 5 tl. ; lib.
Kolhapur 62-0	Lanje Tue. 9-0	... 4-0 Ratnagiri 19-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Karad 114-0	Palgad ... 2-0	... ... Harnai 21-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; 5 tl.
Belgaum 75-0	Danoli Sun. 5-0	Konalkatta 27-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Karad 121-0	Palgad ... 6-0	... ... Harnai 28-0	w.	2 tl.
Belgaum 91-0	Kankumbi Fri. 6-0	Sawantwadi. 16-0	w. ; rv. ; n.	Sl (pr.). ; 4 tl.
Karad 93-0	Wakaoli ... 1-4	Dapoli 5-0 Harnai 17-0	w.	Sl (pr.). ; 3 tl.
Karad 107-0	Kudawale ... 3-0	Palgad 2-0 Harnai 20-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Gavdevi Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; Shirasoba Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.
Belgaum 82-0	Banda Mon. 10-0	Banda 10-0 Vengurla 35-0	rv. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; Sateri Fr. in Ps. ; tl.
Kolhapur 67-0	Kankavli Tue. 6-4	Kankavli 4-0 Deogad 50-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 5 tl.
Karad 105-0	Camp-Dapoli. ... 6-0	... ... Harnai 13-0	rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Kolhapur 90-0	Lanje Tue. 14-0	Lanje 11-0 Ratnagiri 42-0	w.	Sl (pr) ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl. ; Holi Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Karad 123-0	Dabhol ... 2-4	Dapoli 10-0 Dabhol 9-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1240 Śirbe ; SGR ; शिर्बे	W ; 29-0	3.6 ; 741 ; 135 ; 716.	Veer 1-0
1241 Śirgāṅv ; MDG ; शिरगांव	E ; 4-0	2.0 ; 481 ; 101 ; 457.	Mandangad 5-0
1242 Śirgāṅv ; KD ; शिरगांव	E ; 19-0	8.1 ; 1566 ; 293 ; 1397.	Khopi 4-0
1243 Śirgāṅv ; CLN ; शिरगांव	E ; 10-0	4.9 ; 1889 ; 410 ; 1001.	Local ...
1244 Śirgāṅv ; DGD ; शिरगांव	E ; 16-0	10.7 ; 3023 , 593 ; 2218.	Local ...
1245 Śiraḷ ; CLN ; शिरळ	SW ; 3-0	8.1 ; 3377 ; 663 ; 2643	Local ..
1246 Śiravaḷī ; KD ; शिरवळी	N ; 5-0	2.1 ; 563 ; 115 ; 517	Khed 14-0
1247 Śiravaḷī ; CLN ; शिरवळी	W ; 12-0	2.0 ; 613 ; 122 ; 492.	Rampur 3-0
1248 Śiravaḷī ; DGD ; शिरवळी	SW ; 22-0	3.0 ; 659 ; 118 ; 656.	Talere 6-0
1249 Śiravaḍe ; MLV ; शिरवडे	E ; 25-0	4.7 ; 1359 ; 276 ; 1078.	Ramgad 4-0
1250 Śiroḍa ; VGR ; शिरोडा	SE ; 9-0	2.4 ; 5373 ; 1099 ; 1944.	Local ...
1251 Śirśī ; KD ; शिर्शी	S ; 7-0	2.6 ; 1292 ; 251 ; 648.	Mumbake 1-0
1252 Śiv Bk. ; KD ; शिव बुद्रुक	S ; 6-0	1.4 ; 755 ; 144 ; 592.	Local ...
1253 Śiv Kh. ; KD ; शिव खुर्द	S ; 8-0	2.1 ; 866 ; 166 ; 687.	Shiv Bk. 2-0
1254 Śivaḍāv ; KVL ; शिवडाव	SE ; 5-0	7.7 ; 2457 ; 510 ; 2098.	Harkul Bk. 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	93-0	Makhjan	Sat.	5-0	Makhjan	6-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Mg. Vad. 14 (Mahashivratra).; 2 tl.; Temple of Shri Mallikarjuna is surrounded by water.
					...	...		
Mumbra	108-0	Mhapral	Fri.	6-0	Dasgaon	18-0	w.	tl.
					Mhapral	9-0		
Karad	82-0	Khed	...	19-0	Khopi	5-0	w.; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; 6 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	52-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	10-0	w.	Sl (pr.).; pyt.; 2 tl.; dh.; gym.; lib.; dp.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	64-0	Local	Wed.	...	Deogad	11-0	w.	5 Sl (5 pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10; 7 tl.; M.; lib..; dp.
					...	...		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	3-0	w.	6 Sl (6 pr).; pyt.; 8 tl.; 2 mq.; 4 dg.
					...	...		
Karad	94-0	Khed	...	6-0	Khed	6-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					...	...		
Karad	..	....	..	..	Chiplun	12-0	w.; t. rv.	Sl (pr); Shimga Fr. Phg. sud. 15.; 4 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	60-0	Talere	Tue.	6-0	Deogad	22-0	w.; n.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 4 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	66-0	Viran	Wed.	6-0	Kasal	3-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Mrg. Sud. 14.; 5 tl.
					Malvan	16-0		
Belgaum	80-0	Local	Sun	...	Vengurla	8-0	w.	5 Sl (5 pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp). Mauli Fr. Vad. 12.; 10 tl.; M.; dg.; ch.; lib; 5 dp.
					Vengurla	10-0		
Karad	85-0	Khed	...	9-4	Khed	9-4	w.; spr. pl.	4 Sl (4 pr).; tl.; 4 mq.; 6 dg.
					...	...		
Karad	80-0	Khed	...	4-0	Boraj	3-0	pl.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 2 tl.; 2 mq.; dg.
					...	...		
Karad	81-0	Khed	...	4-0	Boraj	5-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 3 tl.; 2 dg.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	65-0	Kankavli	Tue.	6-0	Kankavli	6-0	rv; w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Pavanai Fr. Mrg. Vad. 9.; 4 tl.; M.; dh.
					Deogad	50-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1255 Śivaṇe ; SGR ; शिवणे	W ; 8-0	2·8 815 ; 160 ; 744.	Teryen 1-4
1256 Śivaṇe Bk. ; RJP ; शिवण बुद्रुक	E ; 8-0	1·5 ; 512 ; 91 ; 492.	Bhoo 6-0
1257 Śivaṇe Kh. ; RJP ; शिवणे खुर्द	S ; 10-0	1·5 ; 524 ; 112 ; 516.	Vilye 3-0
1258 Śivaṇe ; GHR ; शिवणे	SE ; 26-0	2·3 ; 726 ; 148 ; 644.	Weer 6-0
1259 Śivanerī ; DPL ; शिवनेरी	SE ; 9-0	0·8 ; 279 ; 60 ; 184.	Wakadi 6-0
1260 Śivāpūr ; KDL ; शिवापूर	E ; 28-0	8·3 ; 1041 ; 204 ; 912.	Mangaon 10-0
1261 Śivār Ambere ; RTN ; शिवार अंबेरे	N ; 17-0	3·2 ; 893 ; 195 ; 883.	Gavde Ambere 2-0
1262 Śivatar ; KD ; शिवतर	N ; 9-4	5·2 ; 1867 ; 389 ; 1228.	Murde. 3-0
1263 Śoḍye ; KD ; सोडये	E ; 11-0	0·7 ; 237 ; 58 ; 236.	Mahalunge 5-0
1264 Soḷagāṅv ; RJP ; सोळगांव	S ; 8-0	8·1 ; 1531 ; 294 ; 1464.	Dhaulvali 4-0
1265 Solīvaḍe ; RJP ; सोलीवडे	E ; 14-0	0·8 ; 210 ; 30 ; 206.	Saundal 3-0
1266 Solye ; RJP ; सोल्ये	E ; 12-0	1·3 ; 544 ; 86 ; 453.	Rajapur 12-0
1267 Somēśvar ; RTN ; सोमेश्वर	S ; 5-0	5·0 ; 2236 ; 389 ; 1473.	Local ...
1268 Sonāravāḍi ; SGR ; सोनारवाडी	E ; 9-0	1·6 ; 528 ; 120 ; 387.	Angnoli 0-4
1269 Sonavaḍe ; SGR ; सोनवडे	N ; 10-0	1·2 ; 764 ; 154 ; 446.	Kosumb 4-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand: Distance. / Port: Distance		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	69-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	7-0	...	4-0	rvr.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	96-0	Lanje	Tue.	10-0	Rajapur	11-0	cl.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					Mussakaji	17-0		
Kolhapur	88-0	Rajapur	Wed.	8-0	Rajapur	10-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					Mussakaji	9-0		
Karad	98-0	......	...	...	Makhjan	12-0	cl.; n.;t.	Sl (pr).; Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 9.; 3 tl.
					Dabhol	36-0		
Karad	93-0	Palgad	...	6-0	Dapoli	2-0	w.	2 tl.
					Harnai	19-0		
Belgaum	90-0	Dukanwad	Sun.	6-0	Nerur K. Narur	8-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).: pyt.; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. Ps. Sud. 4.; 2 tl. Manohar Mansantosh Fort.
					Vengurla	36-0		
Kolhapur	90-0	Pawas	Daily.	4-0	...	18-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					Purnagad	5-0		
Karad	80-0	Khed	..	5-0	Khed.	10-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; Cs (cr).; 8 tl.; dp.
					...	...		
Karad	100-0	Khed	..	12-0	Khed	12-0	w.; rv.	2 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	89-0	Lanje	Tue.	30-0	...	...	w.; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr.); pyt.; tl.; dh.
					Mussakaji	8-0		
Kolhapur	32-0	Vavda	Thur.	12-0	Oni	9-0	w.	tl.
					Mussakaji	36-0		
Kolhapur	60-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	7-0	Kondye	6-0	w.	Sl (pr.); tl.; lib.
					Mussakaji	24-0		
Kolhapur	88-0	Harcheri	Mon.	11-0	...	2-0	w.; cl.	3 Sl (2 pr; m).: pyt.: 2cs.; Datta Jayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.; 6 tl.; 2mq.; dg.; lib.; dp.
					Ratnagiri	5-0		
Kolhapur	87-0	Deorukh	Sun.	9-0	Deorukh	9-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; 2mq.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	67-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	6-0	...	8-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 5 tl.
					...	...		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.		Post Office ; Distance.	
1270 Sonāvaḷ ; SWT ; सोनावळ	E ;	33-0	2·1 ; 243 ;	60 ; 205.	Bhedshi	10-0
1271 Sonḍeghar ; DPL ; सोंडेघर	N ;	11-0	1·7 ; 603 ;	117 ; 522.	Palgad	3-0
1272 Sonagāṅv ; KD ; सोनगांव	S ;	16-0	3·0 ; 1192 ;	243 ; 1093.	Parshuram	5-0
1273 Sonavaḍe Tarf Haveli ; KDL ; सोनवडे तर्फ हवेली	NW ;	3-0	1·7 ; 1019 ;	202 ; 613.	Nerur	3-0
1274 Sonavaḍe Tarf Kaḷasulī ; KDL. सोनवडे तर्फ कळसुली	NE ;	26-0	5·9 ; 1658 ;	309 ; 1609.	Jambhavade	2-4
1275 Sonurlī ; SWT ; सोनुर्ली	S ;	7-0	4·6 ; 1317 ;	300 ; 900.	Madure	3-0
1276 Saudāle ; DGD ; सौदाळे	NE ;	51-0	5·9 ; 1138 ;	230 ; 1047.	Waghotan	1-0
1277 Sovelī ; DPL ; सोवेली	E ;	18-0	1·8 ; 767 ;	148 ; 764.	Palgad	6-0
1278 Sovelī ; MDG ; सोवेली	E ;	8-0	1·7 ; 496 ;	96 ; 474.	Mhapral	7-0
1279 Śrāvan ; MLV ; श्रावण	NE ;	20-0	4·0 ; 1347 ;	273 ; 941.	Local	...
1280 Śriṅgārapūr ; SGR ; शृन्गारपूर	S ;	24-0	7·2 ; 1008 ;	222 ; 387.	Nayri	3-0
1281 Sugadar ; KD ; सुगदर	W ;	7-4	2·0 ; 699 ;	139 ; 565.	Phurus	1-4
1282 Sukivalī ; KD ; सुकीवली	E ;	3-0	3·2 ; 1158 ;	249 ; 764.	Khed	3-0
1283 Sukonḍī ; DPL ; सुकोंडी	NW ;	16-0	3·7 ; 1004 ;	248 ; 689.	Anjarle	3-0
1284 Surle ; MDG ; सुर्ले	S ;	3-0	2·2 ; 290 ;	66 ; 261.	Mandangad	1-4

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar : Bazar Day : Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	32-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	10-0	Konalkatta	2-0	w.	tl.
					Vengurla	47-0		
Karad	119-0	Palgad	...	3-0	Harnai	19-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl. ; mq. ; dg.
					...	...		
Karad	72-0	Chiplun	...	6-0	Chiplun	6-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 6 tl.
					...	...		
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	4-0	Nirukhe	8-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Linga Fr. Mrg. Vad. 8. ; 5 tl. ; M.
					Vengurla	18-0		
Kolhapur	60-0	Kankavli	Tue.	15-0	Nirukhe	6-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Shri Dev Linga. Fr. Mrg. Vad. 6 ; 4 tl. ; dg.
					Malvan	48-0		
Belgaum	72-0	Sawantwadi	Tue.	8-0	Nhaveli	10-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10 ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 ; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9 ; 5 tl. ; dh.
					Vengurla	14-0		
Kolhapur	94-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	31-0	Vijaydurg	16-0	w. ; n.	pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	122-0	Palgad	...	6-0	Palgad	3-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 5 tl.
					Harnai	30-0		
Mumbra	100-0	Mhapral	Fri.	7-0	...	...	...	Sl (pr). ; pyt.
					Mhapral	10-0		
Kolhapur	72-0	Ramgad	Mon.	3-0	Local	..	w. ; n. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Saptah Kt. Sud. 11. Vijayadashami Fr. An. Sud. 10 ; 12 tl. ; lib.
					Achare	12-0		
Kolhapur	84-0	Nayri	Wed.	3-0	...	14-0	rv. ; w.	Sl (pr). ; 6 tl. ; Parachitgad Fort.
					..	..		
Karad	96-0	Khed	...	8-0	Khed	8-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Bhavani Devi Fr. Ps. Sud. 15 ; 2 tl. ; mq.
					...	...		
Karad	87-0	Khed	...	3-0	Khed	3-0	rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 6 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	115-0	Anjarle	...	3-0	Harnai	5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
					Harnai	6-0		
Mumbra	115-0	Mhapral	Fri.	7-0	...	...	w.	3 tl.
					Mhapral	8-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1285 Sural ; GHR. ; सुरळ	E ; 9-0	2·1 ; 608 ; 159 ; 577.	Welamb 3-0
1286 Suseri ; KD. ; सुसेरी	W ; 2-0	2·0 ; 1102 ; 227 ; 1056.	Khed 2-0
1287 Svayamdev ; CLN. ; स्वयंदेव	E ; 16-0	1·0 ; 312 ; 61 ; 307.	Kalkaone 3-0
1288 Tāḍil ; DPL. ; ताडील	NW ; 8-0	4·2 ; 1215 ; 272 ; 857.	Local ...
1289 Tākavali ; MDG. ; टाकवली	SW ; 7-0	1·2 ; 279 ; 71 ; 219.	Mandangad 3-0
1290 Ṭakeḍe ; MDG. ; टाकेडे	E ; 5-0	1·5 ; 505 ; 120 ; 439.	Mandangad 6-0
1291 Talagāṅv ; RJP. ; तळगांव	N ; 12-0	4·2 ; 1224 ; 252 ; 124.	Rajapur 12-0
1292 Talagāṅv ; MLV. ; तळगांव	E ; 16-0	5·7 ; 4118 ; 874 ; 2899.	Local ..
1293 Talaghar ; KD. ; तळघर	SW ; 13-0	1·5 ; 422 ; 92 ; 338.	Popbalon 2-0
1294 Talakaṭ ; SWT. ; तळकट	E ; 19-0	2·2 ; 758 , 156 ; 661.	Kalne 4-0
1295 Talasar ; CLN. ; तळसर	E ; 12-0	2·9 ; 1114 ; 238 ; 981.	Shirgaon 6-0
1296 Ṭālasure ; DPL. ; टाळसुरे	E ; 3-0	4·8 ; 1337 , 283 ; 1123.	Camp-Dapoli 3-0
1297 Talavaḍe ; KVL. ; तळवडे	SE ; 5-0	1·3 ; 518 ; 104 ; 477.	Vasargaon 2-4
1298 Talavaḍe ; SWT. ; तळवडे	W ; 8-0	6·3 ; 3905 ; 732 ; 2950.	Hodavde 1-0
1299 Talavaḍe ; LNJ. ; तळवडे	N ; 6-0	3·1 ; 862 ; 169 ; 800.	Nanij 4-0

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad 79-0	....	Guhagar 13-0	w.	SI (pr). ; tl. ; mq. ; dg.
		Dabhol 22-0		
Karad 87-0	Khed ... 2-0	Khed 2-0	w.	2 SI (2 pr). ; Kshemakshetraphal Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; Dattatraya Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15 ; 8 tl.
		... ...		
Karad 60-0	....	Chiplun 13-0	w. ; rv.	3 tl.
		... ...		
Karad 102-0	Camp-Dapoli ... 4-0	Dapoli 5-0	w. ; rv.	3 SI (3 pr.) ; 3 tl. ; mq. ; 3 dg.
		Harnai 6-0		
Mumbra 120-0	Panderi Thu. 3-0	Mahad 25-0	w.	SI (pr.) ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl.
		Mhapral 10-0		
Mumbra 125-0	Mhapral Fri. 18-0	Dasgaon 15-0	w.	SI (pr). ; 2 tl.
		Mhapral 13-0		
Kolhapur 70-0	Kharepatan Tue. 2-0	... ...	w. ; o.	2 SI (2 pr). ; 3 tl. ; 2 lib.
		Musakaji 27-0		
Kolhapur 80-0	Sukalwad Sat. 4-0	Sukalwad 1-0	w. ; t.	7 SI (7 pr).; pyt. ; Fr. Mrg. Sud. 2 and Mrg. Vad. 2. ; 4 tl. ; M.
		Malvan 16-0		
Karad 90-0	Khed ... 10-0	Khed 12-0	w. ; cl.	Holi Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 ; tl.
		... ...		
Belgaum 80-0	Banda Mon. 8-0	Banda 10-0	w. ; rv. ; n.	SI (pr). ; 2 tl.
		Vengurla 27-0		
Karad 55-0	... ...	Chiplun 12-0	w. ; rv. ; pil.	SI (pr). ; 4 tl.
		... ...		
Karad 96-0	Camp-Dapoli .. 3-0	Dapoli 4-0	w.	SI (pr). ; pyt. ; Gavdevi Fr. Ct. Vad. 9. ; 4 tl.
		Harnai 12-0		
Kolhapur 68-0	Kankavli Tue. 4-0	Kankavli 4-0	w.	SI (pr). ; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Vad. 2 ; 5 tl. ; M.
		Deogad 50-0		
Belgaum 71-0	Hodavde Tue. 1-0	Sawantwadi 8-0	w. ; rv.	5 SI (5 pr).; pyt.; Shri Dev Mahadev Fr. Mrg. Sud. 6 ; 8 tl. ch. lib. ; dp.
		Vengurla 7-0		
Kolhapur 60-0	Lanje Tue. 6-0	Lanje 6-0	w.	SI (pr) ; pyt ; Maheshivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13. ; 2 tl., 2 M. ; mq. ; dg. ; dh. ; lib.
		Ratnagiri 26-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1300 Talavade ; RJP. ; तळवडे	E : 20-0	17·0 ; 2209 ; 440 ; 2009.	Raypatan 2-0
1301 Talavade ; CLN. ; तळवडे	N : 26-0	2·9 ; 702 ; 130 ; 676.	Kutre 3-0
1302 Talāvade ; DGD. ; तळवडे	E : 9-0	2·5 ; 1599 ; 340 ; 955.	Tale Bazar 2-0
1303 Talavade Tarf Devarukh SGR. ; तळवडे तर्फ देवरुख	E : 2-0	2·2 ; 446 ; 76 ; 198.	Deorukh 2-0
1304 Talavane ; SWT. ; तळवणे	W : 18-0	3·9 ; 1594 ; 297 ; 1033.	Aronda 3-0
1305 Talavalī ; GHR. ; तळवली	W : 15-0	4·5 ; 1650 ; 361 ; 776.	Local ...
1306 Talavat Jāvalī ; KD. ; तळवट जावळी	E : 33-0	2·5 ; 437 ; 109 ; 434.	Dhamnand 4-0
1307 Talavat Khed ; KD. ; तळवट खेड	E ; 33-0	2·7 ; 486 ; 105 ; 481.	Pophalon 2-4
1308 Talẽ ; KD. ; तळें	E ; 8-0	5·5 ; 1958 ; 382 ; 1837.	Local ...
1309 Talẽ ; SGR. ; तळें	W : 22-0	0·4 ; 223 ; 32 ; 198.	Wandri 3-0
1310 Taleghar ; MDG. ; तळेघर	SE ; 10-0	1·3 ; 362 ; 78 ; 331.	Latwan 2-0
1311 Talekhol ; SWT. ; तळेखोल	... 27-0	5·0 ; 638 ; 160 ; 313.	Kasai 4-0
1312 Talere ; KVL. ; तळेरे	N ; 13-0	3·4 ; 1446 ; 248 ; 1425.	Local ...
1313 Tāmbedī ; SGR. ; तांबेडी	N : 19-0	2·7 ; 758 ; 167 ; 524.	Deorukh 5-0
1314 Tāmbulī ; SWT. ; तांबुळी	SE ; 14-0	3·9 ; 651 ; 136 ; 372.	Local ...

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	90-0	Local	Sun.	...	...	...	w.; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.
					Musakaji	37-0		
Karad	...	...	...	...	Chiplun	25-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	73-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	2-0	Deogad	11-0	w.; o.	3 Sl (3 pr).; Cs (mp).; 7 tl.; dh.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	63-0	Deorukh	Sun.	2-0	Deorukh	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Belgaum	78-0	Aronda	Sat.	3-0	Sawantwadi	16-0	w.; t.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Mauli. Fr. Mrg. Sud. 7.; 2 tl.; M.; Cch.
					Vengurla	16-0		
Karad	84-0	...	...	...	Guhagar	9-0	w.; cl.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2 tl.
					Karul	2-0		
Karad	78-0	Chiplun	...	10-0	Chiplun	15-0	rv.; pit.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	72-0	Chiplun	...	12-0	Chiplun	15-0	rv.; pit.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	99-0	Khed	...	8-0	Khed	8-0	w.	4 Sl (4 pr).; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; dp.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	73-0	Phungus	Tue.	11-0	...	1-0	str.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					...	...		
Mumbra	126-0	Mhapral	Fri.	21-0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
					Mhapral	15-0		
Belgaum	98-0	Sakhali	Mon.	4-0	Dodamarga	6-0	w.	Sl (m).; tl.
					Vengurla	43-0		
Kolhapur	60-0	Local	Tue.	...	Local	...	w.; o.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; 5 tl.; dh.; lib.; 3 dp.
					Vijaydurg	30-0		
Kolhapur	66-0	Deorukh	Sun.	5-0	Kasaba Sangameshwar	6-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Belgaum	75-0	[illegible]	Mon.	6-0	Banda	[illegible]-0	n.; spr.	Sl (pr).; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 11.; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	24-0		

Serial No. : Village/Town name : Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles). ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1315 Tāmanāḷe ; SGR ; तामनाळे	SE ; 7-0	1·6 ; 311 ; 59 ; 311.	Kasumb 4-0
1316 Tāmhanamaḷā ; CLN ; ताम्हनमळा	S ; 16-0	3·6 ; 913 ; 161 ; 793.	Owali 3-0
1317 Tāmhāṇe ; SGR ; ताम्हाणे	SE ; 2-0	1·8 ; 546 ; 103 ; 524.	Deorukh 5-0
1318 Tāmhāṇe ; RJP ; ताम्हाणे	E ; 15-0	17·2 ; 2690 ; 520 ; 2677.	Raypatan 3-0
1319 Tāmhāṇe ; MDG ; ताम्हाणे	SW ; 11-0	0·6 ; 104 ; 34 ; 104.	Mandangad 9-0
1320 Tāmhane ; DGD ; ताम्हाणे	E ; 10-0	8·8 ; 1741 ; 374 ; 1642.	Local ..
1321 Tāmoṇḍ ; DPL ; तामोंड	SE ; 24-0	1·0 ; 283 ; 58 ; 136.	Ayani 5-0
1322 Tanāḷi ; CLN ; तनाळी	W ; 18-0	3·1 ; 964 ; 188 ; 921.	Rampur 4-0
1323 Taṅgar ; DPL ; टांगर	E ; 10-0	3·3 ; 1174 ; 225 ; 997.	Kudawale 2-0
1324 Tāraḷ ; RJP ; तारळ	S ; 12-0	4·4 ; 1596 ; 340 ; 1444.	Nanar 6-0
1325 Tarandaḷe ; KVL ; तरंदळे	W ; 4-0	4·8 ; 1532 ; 329 ; 725.	Local ..
1326 Taravaḷ ; RTN ; तरवळ	E ; 20-0	4·6 ; 1226 ; 278 ; 1190.	Maigund 12-0
1327 Tavasāḷ ; GHR ; तवसाळ	S ; 24-0	3·7 ; 3013 ; 533 ; 1287.	Local ..
1328 Tembavali ; DGD ; टेंबवली	E ; 8-0	2·6 ; 1404 ; 310 ; 1114.	Local ..
1329 Tembhye ; RTN ; टेंम्ये	E ; 7-0	3·4 ; 886 ; 195 ; 507.	Local ..

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand: Distance. Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	67-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	6-0	Deorukh ...	7-0 ...	w.; rv.	2 tl.
Karad	...	...	...	...	Chiplun ...	12-0 ...	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	66-0	Deorukh	Sun.	5-0	Deorukh ...	6-0 ...	w.; n.	......
Kolhapur	88-0	Pachal	Sun.	2-0	... Musakaji	... 35-0	rv.; w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; 2 tl.
Mumbra	124-0	Panderi	Thu.	15-0	... Mhapral	... 16-0	pit.; rv.	tl.
Kolhapur	70-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	2-0	Deogad Deogad	19-0 11-0	w.; cl.; o.	3 Sl (3 pr).; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg.V. 13; 7 tl.; mq.
Karad	116-0	Ayani	..	5-0	Deogaon Dabhol	7-0 13-0	w.	3 tl.; mq.
Karad	..	...	...	...	Chiplun ..	13-0 ..	w.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
Karad	109-0	Kudawale	..	2-0	Palgad Harnai	3-0 18-0	w.; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Gavdevi Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 3 tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	70-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	10-0	.. Musakaji	.. 15-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	58-0	Kankavli	Tue.	2-0	Kankavli Malvan	2-0 28-0	w.	Sl (pr.); Cs (fmg.); 2 tl.
Kolhapur	90-0	Kotavde	Daily	4-0	Local Tivari	 10-0	w.; cl.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2 tl.
Karad	108-0	Sangameshwar	Wed.	33-0	Guhagar Jaigad	22-0 2-0	w.; t.; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr.); pyt.; Ganesh Chaturthi Fr. Mg. Vad. 4. Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 2 tl.; 2 mq.; dg.; dh.
Kolhapur	75-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	4-0	... Deogad	1-4 10-0	w.; cl.	2 Sl (m. pr).; Cs (fmg.).; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10; 2 tl.; mq.; dg.; dh.
Kolhapur	85-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	7-0	... Ratnagiri	3-0 7-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr.).; 2 tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) . Population Households : Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1330 Tendoli ; KDL ; तेंडोली	SW ; 6-4	8·9 ; 2521 ; 415 ; 1775.	Local —
1331 Teradi ; MDG ; तेरडी	E ; 8-0	0·8 ; 269 ; 58 ; 251.	Mandangad 9-0
1332 Teravan ; RJP ; तेरवण	S ; 6-0	3·2 ; 749 ; 157 ; 723.	Bhoo 2-0
1333 Teravan Medhe ; SWT ; तेरवण मेढे	E ; 25-0	7·0 ; 716 ; 162 ; 664.	Bhedshi 10-0
1334 Tere Vayangani ; DPL ; तेरे वायंगणी	S ; 6-0	2·3 ; 604 ; 142 ; 419.	Camp-Dapoli 8-0
1335 Teru ; CLN ; टेरु	E ; 3-0	6·3 ; 2069 441 ; 1869.	Chiplun 5-0
1336 Teryē ; SGR ; तेऱ्यें	N ; 7-0	2·5 ; 1059 ; 202 ; 976.	Local —
1337 Tetale ; GHR ; तेटले	NW ; 10-0	0·39 ; 59 ; 13 ; 42.	Peth Anjanwel 5-0
1338 Tetavali ; DPL ; तेटवली	E ; 10-0	2·9 ; 1167 ; 221 ; 1001.	Wakavli 3-0
1339 Thikān Beherē ; RTN ; ठिकान बेहरें	S ; 9-0	0·1 ; 92 ; 15 ; 73.	Purnagad 2-0
1340 Thikān Cakradev ; RTN ; ठिकान चक्रदेव	S ; 10-0	0·1 ; 9 ; 1 ; 9.	Pawas 4-0
1341 Thikān Dātye ; RTN ; ठिकान दात्ये	E ; 5-0	0·1 ; 21 ; 3 ; 21.	Basani 5-0
1342 Thikān Jāmbhul Ād ; RTN ; ठिकान जांभूळ आड	S ; 10-0	0·1 ; 109 ; 17 ; 109.	Purnagad 1-0
1343 Thikān Kond ; RJP ; ठिकाण कोंड	NE ; 12-0	0·5 ; 101 ; 18 ; 94.	Saundal 0-4
1344 Thikān Soman ; RTN ; ठिकाण सोमण	S ; 10-0	0·1 ; 6 ; 1 ; ..	Marvi 0-4

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand: Distance. Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	87-0	Valaval	Tue.	6-0	Nerur Vengurla	2-0 17-0	w.; cl.	3 Sl (3 pr).; Pyt.; Shri Devi Sateri Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 5 tl; 2 M.
Mumbra	125-0	Mhapral	Fri.	10-0	.. Mhapral	.. 12-0	w.	4 tl.
Kolhapur	91-0	Rajapur	Wed.	5-0	Rajapur Musakaji	5-0 11-0	w.; cl.	Sl (pr.).; 5 tl.
Belgaum	30-0	Bhedshi	Sun.	10-0	Konalkatta Vengurla	10-0 50-0	w.; t.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad	112-0	Camp-Dapoli	..	8-0	.. Dabhol	.. 11-0	cl.	Sl (pr.).; 3 tl.
Karad	50-0	..	..	..	Chiplun ..	6-0 ..	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.
Kolhapur	64-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	3-0	.. Sangameshwar.	3-0 ..	rv.; w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Cs.; 2 tl.
Karad	85-0	Makhjan	Fri.	24-0	Guhagar Dabhol	11-0 2-0	n.; w.	tl.
Karad	95-0	Waksoli	..	3-0	.. Harnai	.. 21-0	w.; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 4 tl.; mq.; dg.
Kolhapur	96-0	Purnagad	Daily	2-0	.. Ratnagiri	1-4 9-0	cl.	
Kolhapur	96-0	Pawas	Daily	4-0	.. Purnagad	1-4 2-0	w.	
Kolhapur	85-0	Harcheri	Mon.	15-0	Local Ratnagiri	.. 5-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	96-0	Purnagad	Daily	1-0	.. Purnagad	1-4 2-0	cl.	2 tl.
Kolhapur	55-0	Pachal	Sun.	5-0	Oni Musakaji	6-0 27-0	w.	
Kolhapur	105-0	Pawas	Daily	3-0	.. Purnagad	1-4 2-0	w.	

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi	Direction from the taluka/ peta H.Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1345 Tiḍe ; MDG ; तिडे	SE ; 8-0	2·8 ; 1058 ; 210 ; 994.	Latwan 3-0
1346 Tike ; RTN ; टिके	E ; 11-0	2·7 ; 1025 ; 195 ; 639.	Ibhrampattan 3-0
1347 Tiravaḍe ; MLV ; तिरवडे	NE ; 20-0	2·0 ; 667 ; 150 ; 543.	Katta 3-0
1348 Tirlot ; DGD ; तिर्लोट	N ; 13-0	6 2 ; 3080 ; 635 ; 1934.	Local ..
1349 Tiroḍe ; SWT ; तिरोडे	SW ; 14-0	1·0 ; 1104 ; 193 ; 713.	Ajgaon 1-0
1350 Tisaṅgī ; KD ; तिसंगी	E ; 9-0	5·0 ; 2118 ; 386 ; 1952.	Local ...
1351 Tise ; KD ; तिसे	W ; 4-0	2·4 ; 943 ; 201 ; 921.	Murde 1-0
1352 Tivaḍi ; CLN ; तिवडी	E ; 22-0	3·7 ; 511 ; 104 , 491.	Kalkasne 4-0
1353 Tivarāmbi ; RJP ; तिवरांबी	W ; 18-0	0·2 ; 24 ; 3 ; 19.	Mithgavne 2-4
1354 Tivare ; KVL ; तिवरे	NE ; 7-0	2·2 ; 768 ; 152 ; 725.	Phonda 6-0
1355 Tivare ; RJP ; तिवरे	N ; 12-0	1·7 ; 474 ; 94 ; 430.	Oni 4-0
1356 Tivare ; CLN ; तिवरे	E 18-0	10·2 ; 1387 ; 295 ; 1242.	Morawane 3-0
1357 Tivare Tarf Devale ; SGR ; तिवरे तर्फ देवळे	W ; 11-0	2·2 ; 692 ; 119 ; 533.	Nayri 1-0
1358 Tivare Gherā Pracitgaḍ ; SGR ; तिवरे घेरा प्रचितगड	S ; 25-0	2·2 ; 548 ; 109 ; 533.	Nayri 1-0
1359 Toṇade ; RTN ; तोणदे	E ; 13-0	2·8 ; 800 ; 162 ; 551.	Someshwar 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Mumbra	125-0	Mhapral	Fri.	20-0	.. Mhapral	.. 15-0	w.	SI (pr).; pyt.; 5 tl.; mq.; dg.
Kolhapur	87-0	Ibhrampattan	Mon.	3-0	.... Ratnagiri	11-0 8-0	w.; t.; cl.	SI (pr).; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	78-0	Katta	Fri.	3-0	Katta Malvan	1-4 14-0	w.	SI (pr).; Dahikala Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	90-0	Padel	Wed.	3-0	Vijaydurg ..	12-0 ..	w.	4 SI (4 pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Ur.; 3 tl.; 2 mq.; dg.; 4 lib.; dp.; Brass—locks are made here.
Belgaum	2-0	Shiravade	Sun.	2-0	Ajgaon Vengurla	1-0 9-0	w.	SI (pr).; Shri Mauli Fr. Mrg. Sud. 5; tl.
Karad	98-0	Khed	...	7-0	Khopi ..	3-0 ...	w.; rv.	3 SI (3 pr).; pyt.; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 9 tl.; mq.; dg.
Karad	88-0	Khed	...	4-0	Khed ..	6-0 ..	w.	SI (pr).; tl.; mq.; dg.
Karad	64-0	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	18-0 ..	w.; rv.	SI (pr).; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	84-0	Rajapur	Wed.	20-0	Rajapur Musakaji	18-0 9-0	w.	.. ..
Kolhapur	60-0	Phonda	Mon.	6-0	Tivare Deogad	6-0 34-0	w.	2 SI (2 pr).; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	92-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	.. Musakaji	... 28-0	w.	Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 3 tl.
Karad	65-0	......	...	...	Chiplun ..	19-0 ..	w.; rv.	2 SI (2 pr).; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	84-0	Nayri	Wed.	1-0	Sakharpa ...	2-0 ..	w.; rv.	SI (pr).
Kolhapur	84-0	Nayri	Wed.	1-0	... ..	5-0 ..	rv.; w.	SI (pr).; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	89-0	Local	Sat.	...	... ..	13-0 ..	rv.; w.	SI (pr).; Cs.; 2tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1360 Tondali ; CLN ; तोंडली	N : 26-0	4·4 ; 1019 ; 206 ; 919.	Vear 5-0
1361 Tondali ; MDG ; तोंडली	SW ; 15-0	2·3 ; 405 ; 105 ; 386.	Palavni 5-0
1362 Tondavali ; MVN ; तोंडवली	N : 6-0	2·1 ; 2092 ; 437 ; 473.	Waigani 4-0
1363 Tondavali ; KVL ; तोंडवली	N : 13-0	3·3 ; 780 ; 158 ; 719.	Phonda 5-0
1364 Trimbak ; MVN ; त्रिंबक	N : 16-0	3·9 ; 1897 ; 366 ; 1055.	Local ...
1365 Tulas ; VGR ; तुळस	E : 5-0	5·8 ; 3717 ; 751 ; 2562.	Local ...
1366 Tulasani ; SGR ; तुळसणी	NE ; 9-0	4·3 ; 1227 ; 220 ; 1078.	Wandri 8-0
1367 Tulasavade ; RJP ; तुळसवडे	E : 14-0	10·0 ; 886 ; 171 ; 883.	Saundal 2-0
1368 Tulasi ; MDG ; तुळसी	W ; 3-2	3·4 ; 826 ; 195 ; 671.	Mandangad 4-0
1369 Tulaśī Bk. ; KD ; तुळशी बुद्रुक	N ; 14-0	2·4 ; 430 ; 97 ; 430.	Khavati 3-0
1370 Tulaśī Kh. ; KD ; तुळशी खुर्द	N ; 13-0	1·7 ; 372 ; 75 ; 354.	Khavati 3-0
1371 Tulasuli Tarf Mānagānv ; KDL ; तुळसुली तर्फ माणगांव	E; 5-0	3·4 ; 1650 ; 312 ; 1202.	Local ...
1372 Tulasuli Karyād Nārur ; KDL ; तुळसुली कऱ्याड नारुर	E : 9-0	2·9 ; 292 ; 51 ; 283.	Mangaon 6-0
1373 Tumbād ; KD ; तुंबाड	SE ; 18-0	1·0 ; 508 ; 96 ; 361.	Aim 2-0
1374 Tural ; SGR ; तुरळ	N : 20-0	5·4 ; 1681 ; 338 ; 1610.	Kadavai 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun ...	18-0 ...	w.; cl. pit.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 3 tl.
Mumbra	135-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Dapoli Mhapral	12-0 20-0	cl.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	90-0	Hadi	Sat.	3-0	Hadi Achare	3-0 5-0	w.	6 Sl (4 pr. 2m).; pyt.; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud 9; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; Dattajayanti Mrg. Sud. 15; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	53-0	Phonda	Mon.	5-0	Local Deogad	... 36-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	80-0	Chindar	Fri.	2-0	Local Achare	... 5-0	w.; n.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 5 tl.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Belgaum	76-0	Vengurla	Mon.	5-0	Vengurla Vengurla	4-0 6-0	w.; rv. t.	5 Sl (2 pr. 3 m).; pyt.; Shri Dev Jaitir Fr. Kt. Vad. 4.; 4 tl.; lib.
Kolhapur	60-0	Sangameshwar.	Tue.	20-0	Sangameshwar.	9-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 3 tl.; mq.
Kolhapur	34-0	Vavda	Thu.	14-0	Oni Musakaji	9-0 33-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Cs.; 2 tl.
Mumbra	120-0	Panderi	Thu.	8-0	... Mhapral	... 14-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl.; M.; Gokulashtami Fr. Srn. Vad. 8.
Karad	70-0	Khed	...	13-4	Khavati ..	3-4 ...	w.	Sl (pr).; 4 tl.
Karad	80-0	Khed	...	12-0	Khavati ...	2-0 ..	w.	3 tl.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	5-0	Kudal Vengurla	5-0 17-0	w.	2 Sl 2 (pr).; 2 tl.; Shri Dev Pavanai's Fr. Kt. Vad. 8.
Belgaum	80-0	Kudal	Wed.	8-0	Bamharde T. Kalsuli. Vengurla	5-0 20-0	w.	2 tl.; Bhavai Fr. Kt. Sud. 3.
Karad	78-0	Khed	...	13-0	Lavel ..	8-0 ...	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3 tl.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Kolhapur	79-0	Makhjan	Sat.	4-0	Local ..	... ..	w.; t.	2 Sl (2 pr).; tl.; Hot springs.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households , Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1375 Turambav ; CLN ; तुरंबव.	S ; 18-0	3·2 ; 1104 ; 230 ; 1003.	Veer 5-0
1376 Turavade ; DPL ; तुरवडे.	N ; 16-0	0·3 ; 53 ; 8 ; 53.	Anjarle 6-0
1377 Ubhale ; CLN ; उभळे	W ; 15-0	3·7 ; 975 ; 193 ; 886.	Margtamhane 4-0
1378 Udeli ; SWT ; उडेली. .	NE ; 27-0	2·8 ; 7 ;	Tamboli 18-0
1379 Udhale Bk ; KD ; उधळे बुद्रुक.	N ; 6-0	1·6 ; 585 ; 108 ; 536.	Khavati 4-0
1380 Udhale Kh. ; KD. ; उधळे खुर्द	N ; 6-0	0·8 ; 303 ; 59 ; 249.	Khavati 4-0
1381 Ughade ; SWT. ; उघाडे	SE ; 17-0	1·8 ; 280 ; 60 ; 195.	Kalne 2-0
1382 Ujagānv ; SGR. ; उजगांव.	W ; 8-0	3·7 ; 1086 ; 190 ; 678.	Kurdunda 4
1383 Uksi ; RTN. ; उक्षी . .	E ; 17-0	3·7 ; 1126 ; 235 ; 857.	Wandri 0-2
1384 Uktād ; CLN. ; उक्ताड	NW ; 2-0	0·3 ; 16 ; 5 ; 16.	Chiplun 1-4
1385 Undi ; RTN. ; उंडी . .	N ; 19-0	0·9 . 231 ; 46 ; 168.	Kespuri 1-0
1386 Undil ; DGD. ; उंडील. .	E ; 20-0	2·3 ; 656 ; 108 , 645.	Phanasgaon 2-0
1387 Unhāle ; RJP. ; उन्हाळे.	E ; 1-4	2·6 ; 845 ; 141 ; 530.	Rajapur 2-0
1388 Unhāvarē ; MDG. ; उन्हावरें.	SW ; 13-0	1·2 ; 181 ; 40 ; 181.	Palawni 3-0
1389 Unhāvarē ; DPL. ; उन्हावरें.	S ; 22-0	2·4 ; 862 ; 188 ; 311.	Wawaghar 0-4

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	14-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 2 Cs (mp, mis.) ; Shri Sharada Devi Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 9. ; 6 tl. ; lib.
Karad	117-0	Anjarle	..	6-0	Dapoli	6-0	rv.	2 tl.
					Harnai	8-0		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	12-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl.
Belgaum	60-0	Danoli	Sun.	8-0	Banda	15-0	rv.	tl.
					Vengurla	29-0		
Karad	90-0	Khed	...	6-0	Udhale Kh.	0-4	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl ; mq. ; dg.
Karad	90-0	Khed	...	7-0	Local	...	w. , rv.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
					...	...		
Belgaum	81-0	Banda	Mon.	9-0	Banda	8-0	rv. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	27-0		
Kolhapur	70-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	4	...	6-0	w. ; rsr. str.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	85-0	Phungus	Tue	3-0	..	..	w. ; n.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; mq.
					Ratnagiri	14-4		
Karad	...	...	...	..	Chiplun	2-0	w. ; pl.	tl. ; mq.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	99-0	Saitavade	Sat.	7-0	...	3-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Cs (mp).
					Jaigad	4-0		
Kolhapur	70-0	Talere	Wed.	4-0	Vijaydurg	11-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl.
					Vijaydurg	30-0		
Kolhapur	87-0	Rajapur	Wed.	2-0	Rajapur	1-4	w.	Sl (pr). · tl. ; hot spring.
					Musakaji	19-0		
Mumbra	127-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Dapoli	23-0	cl.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl.
					Dapoli	23-0		
Karad	117-0	Wawaghar	...	0-4	Dabhol	6-0	w. ; rv. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl. ; 2 mq. ; dg. ; hot spring.
					Dabhol	10-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1390 Umarāṭh ; GHR. ; उमराठ.	S ; 18-0	3·6 ; 1032 ; 205 ; 993.	Hadwi 1-0
1391 Umarē ; RTN. ; उमरें.	E ; 11-0	2·2 ; 589 ; 104 ; 546.	Ibbrampattan 1-0
1392 Umarē ; SGR. ; उमरें.	N ; 15-0	3·5 ; 1006 ; 180 ; 850.	Nayri 4
1393 Umaroli ; MDG. ; उमरोली.	W ; 15-0	0·9 ; 257 ; 63 ; 199.	Bankot 6-0
1394 Umaroli ; CLN. ; उमरोली.	W ; 12-0	2·1 ; 536 ; 111 ; 471.	Rampur 2-0
1395 Umbaraghar ; DPL. ; उंबरघर.	S ; 20-0	0·3 ; 244 ; 72 ; 70.	Onanavse 3-0
1396 Umbarle ; DPL. ; उंबर्ले.	S ; 6-0	2·0 ; 519 ; 135 ; 460.	Camp-Dapoli 60
1397 Umbaraśet ; MDG. ; उंबरशेत.	N ; 9-0	0·9 ; 428 ; 84 ; 367.	Mhapral 4-0
1398 Umbaraśet ; DPL. ; उंबरशेत.	S ; 18-0	2·0 ; 521 ; 128 ; 445.	Kelshi 1-0
1399 Upale ; SGR. ; उपळे.	NE ; 23-0	1·2 ; 237 ; 43 ; 227.	Phungus 14
1400 Upale ; RJP. ; उपळे.	S ; 14-0	5·0 ; 1149 ; 240 ; 1012.	Mutat 8-0
1401 Upale ; LNJ. ; उपळे.	W ; 8-0	3·9 ; 965 ; 180 ; 920.	Lanje 6-0
1402 Upavade ; KDL. ; उपवडे.	E ; 23-0	4·6 ; 387 ; 55 ; 387.	Mangaon 13-0
1403 Urphi ; DPL. ; उर्फी ..	SE ; 9-0	1·3 ; 361 ; 78 ; 345.	Dabhol 6-0
1404 Usagānv ; DPL. ; उसगांव.	W ; 16-0	1·8 ; 612 ; 125 ; 297.	Dabhol 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities ;	Institutions and other information.
Karad	102-0	...	...	...	Guhagar	15-0	w. ; rv.	Sl(pr). ; 2 tl.
					Borya	3-0		
Kolhapur	74-0	Ibhram-pattan.	Mon.	1-0	Ibhram-pattan.	1-0	rv. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; Ca. ; 2 tl.
					Ratnagiri	13-0		
Kolhapur	77	Sangame-shwar.	Wed.	7	Sangame-shwar.	5-0	w. ; rv.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 13. ; 3 tl.
					...	...		
Mumbra	107-0	Panderi	Thu.	15-0	Dasgaon	15-0	w.	S. (pr).
					Bankot	7-0		
Karad	72-0	...	...	...	Chiplun	12-0	w. ; rv.	Sl(pr). ; 2 tl.
					...	...		
Karad	119-0	Onanavse	...	3-0	...	3-0	w.	Sl(pr). ; mq.
					Dabhol	5-0		
Karad	105-0	Camp-Dapoli.	...	6-0	Dapoli	4-0	w.	Sl(pr). ; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	11-0		
Mumbra	102-0	Mhapral	Fri.	4-0	Mahad	17-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Ca (mp). ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
					Mhapral	5-0		
Karad	1-0	Kelshi	...	1-0	Harnai	11-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; tl.
					Harnai	11-0		
Kolhapur	82	Phungus	Tues.	14	Kurdunda	9-0	w. ; n.	Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
					...	...		
Kolhapur	97-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	10-0	...	...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; Ca. ; 10 tl.
					Musakaji	23-0		
Kolhapur	86-0	Harcheri	Mon.	6-0	Punas	3-0	n.	Sl. (pr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
					Ranpar	14-0		
Belgaum	88-0	Dukanwad	Sun.	2-0	Nerur K. Narur.	1-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Pavanai Fr. Mrg. Vad. 14. , 2 tl.
					Vengurla	26-0		
Karad	122-0	Dabhol	...	6-0	Dabhol	6-0	w. ; cl.	Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 5 to 15, Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 9. ; 2 tl.
					Dabhol	10-0		
Karad	113-0	Dabhol	..	3-0	Dabhol	2-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Ganapati Fr. Sud. 4. ; Shri Khandoba Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
					Dabhol	2-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1405 Usap ; SWT. ; उसप	NE ; 34-0	3·6 ; 1039 ; 244 ; 941.	Bhedshi 5-0
1406 Uṭambar ; DPL. ; उटंबर	NW ; 16-0	1·6 ; 407 ; 85 ; 49.	Kelshi 2-0
1407 Vaḍācā Pāṭ ; MVN. ; वडाचा पाट	NE ; 18-0	2·7 ; 1160 ; 210 ; 753.	Viran 2-0
1408 Vaḍad ; GHR. ; वडद	NE ; 14-2	3·0 ; 1253 ; 237 ; 888.	Ginvi 5-0
1409 Vaḍad Hasol ; RJP. ; वडद हसोल	E ; 9-0	3·9 ; 1660 ; 316 ; 1591.	Bhoo 4-0
1410 Vāḍadaī ; GHR. ; वाडदई	S ; 14-0	0·5 ; 276 ; 62 ; 276.	Hedwi 4-0
1411 Vāḍājūn ; RTN. ; वाडाजून	N ; 7-2	0·3 ; 99 ; 22 ; 90.	Kotavde 0-6
1412 Vāḍagāṅv ; LNJ. ; वाडगांव	E ; 6-0	2·4 ; 592 ; 99 ; 525.	Shiposhi 3-0
1413 Vāḍā Kerapoī ; DGD. ; वाडा केरपोई	SW ; 52-4	0·2 ; 66 ; 11 ; 66.	Tirlot 2-0
1414 Vāḍā Peṭh ; RJP. ; वाडा पेठ	W ; 16-0	1·4 ; 838 ; 157 ; 616.	Wadanavedar 2-0
1415 Vāḍā-Pālye ; RJP. ; वाडा पाल्ये	SW ; 18-0	0·5 ; 328 ; 61 ; 277.	Sagave 2-0
1416 Vāḍā Ṭhikaṇāt ; SGR. ; वाडा ठिकणात	S ; 13-0	0·3 ; 88 ; 17 ; 35.	Sangameshwar 4-0
1417 Vāḍā Tivare ; RJP. ; वाडा तिवरे	W ; 18-0	1·5 ; 490 ; 107 ; 416.	Wadanavedar 6-0
1418 Vāḍā Vāghraṇ ; RJP. ; वाडा वाघ्रण	W ; 13-0	0·1 ; 154 ; 32 ; 75.	Anaure 4-0
1419 Vaḍavalī ; RJP. ; वडवली	N ; 13-0	2·0 ; 484 ; 90 ; 458.	Oni 6-0

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	87-0	Kankumbi	Fri.	5-0	Bhedshi	5-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Vengurla	25-0		
Karad	118-0	Kelshi	...	2-0	Harnai	6-0	w.	Yakub Pir Urs.; Shaikh Yakub Pir, historically important, and famous for carving, Shri Devi Mahalaxmi Fr. Ct. Vad. 4 tl.; mq.; 2 dg. ; ch.
					Harnai	6-0		
Kolhapur	65-0	Viran	Wed.	2-0	Malgaon	2-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Sateri Fr. Ps. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
					Malvan	14-0		
Karad	92-0	...	...	...	Guhagar	14-0	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; Pyt. ; Shimga Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; dg. ; dp.
					Dabhol	15-0		
Kolhapur	92-0	Lanje	Tue.	10-0	...	...	rv.	2 Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Musakaji	16-0		
Karad	95-0	..	..	..	Borya	3-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Guhagar	12-0		
Kolhapur	86-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	4-0	..	4-0	w.	
					Ratnagiri	7-2		
Kolhapur	85-0	Lanje	Tue.	6-0	Lanje	6-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Cs. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15, 3tl. ; M. ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.
					Ratnagiri	29-0		
Kolhapur	72-0	Wade	Wed.	4-0	Vijaydurg	10-0	w. ; n.	
					Vijaydurg	10-0		
Kolhapur	94-0	Rajapur	Wed	14-0	Rajapur	16-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Navratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10. ; 2 tl. ; dh. ; lib ; dp.
					Musakaji	9-0		
Kolhapur	92-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	17-0	..	..	n. ; w.	tl.
					Musakaji	13-0		
Kolhapur	75-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	4-0	..	2-0	rv.	tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	96-0	Rajapur	Wed.	15-0	Rajapur	15-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Musakaji	4-0		
Kolhapur	92-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	Rajapur	13-0	w.	
					Musakaji	6-0		
Kolhapur	90-0	Lanje	Tue.	8-0	Oni	6-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; tl.
					Musakaji	18-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population ; Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
1420 Vāḍā Vasarāḍ ; SGR. ; वाडा वसराड	N ;	15–0	1·2 ;	219 ;	39 ;	138.	Sangame-shwar	5–0
1421 Veḍā Vetye ; RJP. ; वाडा वेत्ये	W ;	19–0	0·5 ;	386 ;	86 ;	341.	Wadanavedar	4–0
1422 Vaḍagāṅv Bk. ; KD. ; वडगांव बुद्रुक	E ;	25–0	5·1 ;	511 ;	107 ;	340.	Mahalunge	11–0
1423 Vaḍagāṅv Kh. ; KD. ; वडगांव खुर्द	E ;	24–4	3·5 ;	331 ;	73 ;	301.	Mahalunge	10–0
1424 Vaḍavalī ; DPL. ; वडवली	E ;	9–0	1·5 ;	456 ;	103 ;	351	Palgad	4–0
1425 Vaḍavalī ; MDG. ; वडवली	W ;	12–0	0·9 ;	231 ;	66 ;	231.	Mandangad	12–0
1426 Vāḍe ; DGD. ; वाडे	N ;	7–0	9·2 ;	3782 ;	783 ;	2252.	Local	..
1427 Vaderu ; CLN. ; वडेरु	S ;	27–0	2·1 ;	721 ;	135 ;	645.	Nayshi	1–4
1428 Vāḍī Ādhiṣṭhi ; SGR. ; वाडी आधिष्ठी	NE ;	18–0	1·5 ;	174 ;	35 ;	173.	Sakharpa	7–0
1429 Vāḍī Beladār ; KD. ; वाडी बेलदार	E ;	16–0	3·9 ;	146 ;	26 ;	146.	Tale	2–0
1430 Vāḍī Kh. ; RJP. ; वाडी खुर्द	W ;	16–0	1·5 ;	156 ;	27 ;	110.	Wadanave-dar	3–0
1431 Vāḍīlīṁbū ; LNJ. ; वाडी लिंबू	W ;	15–0	3·3 ;	422 ;	97 ;	295.	Gavade Ambere.	7–0
1432 Vāḍī Mālde ; KD. ; वाडी मालदे	E ;	22–4	0·9	156 ;	25 ;	156.	Mahalunge	5–0
1433 Vāḍī Biḍ ; KD. ; वाडी बीड	SE ;	17–0	1·4 ;	288 ;	60 ;	225.	Mahalunge	6–0
1434 Vāḍī Jaitāpūr ; KD. ; वाडी जैतापूर	E ;	14–0	0·8 ;	218 ;	45 ;	188.	Tale	6–0

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	77-0	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	4-0	..	2-4	rv.; n.	
					..	..		
Kolhapur	100-0	Rajapur	Wed.	13-0	Rajapur	13-0	w.	Sl (pr.).; tl.
					Musakaji	8-0		
Karad	109-0	Khed	..	24-0	Amboli	12-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					..	..		
Karad	108-0	Khed	..	23-0	Amboli	11-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					..	..		
Karad	112-0	Palgad	..	4-0	Palgad	5-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Gavdevi Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.
					Harnai	17-0		
Mumbra	125-0	Panderi	Thu.	10-0	..	..	w.; o.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					Mhapral	18-0		
Kolhapur	61-0	Talera	Tue.	6-0	Local	..	w.	6 Sl (6 pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp); Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.; 19 tl.; dh., dp.; Carved temple of Shri Vimaleshwar.
					Vijaydurg	20-0		
Karad	..	..	..	..	Chiplun	22-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr.).; pyt.; tl.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	59-0	Sakharpa	Sat.	7-0	Sakharpa	8-0	w.; str.	
					..	..		
Karad	105-0	Khed	..	19-0	Khed	19-0	w.	tl.; Mahipatgad Fort; Temple of Shri Dev Pateshwar in the Fort.
					..	..		
Kolhapur	95-0	Rajapur	Wed.	13-0	Rajapur	13-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					Musakaji	7-0		
Kolhapur	90-0	Harchari	Mon.	8-0	Punas	6-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg Vad. 13.; tl.
					Ranpar	7-0		
Karad	102-0	Khed	..	22-0	Amboli	10-0	w.	2 tl.
					..	..		
Karad	100-0	Khed	..	18-0	Amboli	8-0	rv.	tl.
					..	..		
Karad	105-0	Khed	..	18-0	Khed	18-0	w., rv.	Sl (pr.). tl.
					..	..		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1435 Vāḍi Phaṇasavaḍe ; SWT ; वाडी फणसवडे.	SW ; 17-0	Deserted	....
1436 Vādivad ; SGR ; वाडीवड.	NE ; 18-0	0.6 ; Deserted	....
1437 Vaḍ· Varavaḍe ; KDL ; वाडी वरवडे.	SE ; 3-0	2.3 ; 837 ; 174 ; 682.	Kudal 6-0
1438 Vāḍos ; KDL ; वाडोस.	E ; 18-0	2.4 300 ; 68 ; 202.	Mangaon 4-0
1439 Vāghāmbe ; CHR ; वाघांबे.	NE ; 18-0	2.3 ; 558 ; 131 ; 362.	Narwan 1-4
1440 Vāghaṇagānv ; LNJ ; वाघणगांव.	SE : 11-0	1.4 ; 485 ; 94 ; 473.	Waked 6-0
1441 Vāghave ; DPL ; वाघवे.	N : 9-0	1.3 ; 295 ; 72 ; 280.	Harnai 4-0
1442 Vāghere ; KVL ; वाघेरे	N : 12-0	4.2 ; 834 ; 179 ; 750.	Ghonsari 4-0
1443 Vāghivaṇe ; DPL ; वाघिवणे.	NW ; 18-0	1.4 ; 352 ; 115 ; 224.	Ade 2-4
1444 Vāghivare ; CLN ; वाघिवरे.	E ; 21-0	1.6 ; 1176 ; 263 ; 367.	Girwi 4-0
1445 Vāghivare ; DGD ; वाघिवरे.	SW ; 34-0	2.3 ; 446 ; 83 ; 446.	Phanasgaon 2-0
1446 Vāghoṭaṇ Mauje ; DGD ; वाघोटण मौजे.	N ; 49-4	4.1 ; 545 ; 112 ; 484.	Local ...
1447 Vāghraṭ ; LNJ ; वाघ्रट.	W ; 14-0	3.4 ; 740 ; 130 ; 734.	Saturli 8-0
1448 Vahāḷ ; CLN ; वहाळ.	S ; 21-0	4.1 ; 1316 ; 262 ; 1035.	Nivali 4-0
1449 Vaidyalavagāṇ ; RTN ; वैद्य लावगण.	N ; 31-0	0.1 ; 144 ; 28 ; 120.	Kapsari 8-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
....		Deserted	..	..	....			
....		Deserted	..	..	....		o.	Deserted.
					....			
Belgaum	75-0	Kudal	Wed.	6-0	Local	..	w.	Bharadi Devi Fr. Kt. Vad. 1.; tl.
					Vengurla	17-0		
Belgaum	69-0	Mangaon	Tue.	4-0	Local	..	w.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; Shri Dev Ravalnath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 5.
					Vengurla	17-0		
Karad	104-0	....			Guhagar	17-0	w.; cl.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 3tl.
					Jaigad	14-0		
Kolhapur	88-0	Lanje	Tue.	9-0	Waked	6-0	w; t.	Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.; tl.
					Ratnagiri	42-0		
Karad	114-0	Harnai	..	4-0	Harnai	4-0	w.; rv.	2 tl.
					Harnai	4-0		
Kolhapur	58-0	Phonda	Mon.	4-0	Local	...	w.	Sl (pr).; 5 tl.
					Deogad	29-0		
Karad	118-0	Ade	...	2-4	Harnai	6-0	cl.	tl.
					Harnai	8-0		
Karad	76-0	....	...	...	Chiplun	16-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Shimga Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 2 M; 2 dg.
Kolhapur	61-0	Talere	Tue.	6-0	Vijaydurg	30-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					Vijaydurg	30-0		
Kolhapur	93-0	Kharepatan	Thu.	27-0	Vijaydurg	16-0	n.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; 2 tl.
					Vijaydurg	16-0		
Kolhapur	92-0	Harcheri	Mon.	10-0	Lanja	14-0	w.; str; cl.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; tl.
					Ranpar	9-0		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	22-0	w; t.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 5 tl.
Kolhapur	102-0	Jaigad	Daily.	3-0	...	3-4	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
					Jaigad	10-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.				Post Office ; Distance.	
1450 Vajarāṭh ; VGR ; वजराठ	E ;	8-0	3·2 ;	1407 ;	268 ;	1093.	Local	...
1451 Vākade ; KVL ; वाकदे.	S ;	1-0	2·6 ;	1282 ;	229 ;	953.	Local	...
1452 Vākavalī ; DPL ; वाकवली	E ;	9-0	1·7 ;	807 ;	144 ;	690.	Local	...
1453 Vākavalī ; MDG ; वाकवली	E ;	8-0	1·2 ;	262 ;	63 ;	26.	Mhapral	7-4
1454 Vakeḍ ; LNJ ; वाकेड.	S ;	6-0	3·8 ;	1363 ;	244 ;	1077.	Local	...
1455 Vākī ; GHR ; वाकी ..	NE ;	3-0	1·3 ;	360 ;	86 ;	353.	Pat Panhale	4-0
1456 Vālake ; RTN ; वाळके.	E ;	18-0	2·9 ;	730 ;	149 ;	531.	Pali	3-0
1457 Vaḷaṇe ; DPL.. ; वळणे..	SE ;	3-0	1·5 ;	199 ;	45 ;	170.	Camp-Dapoli.	4-0
1458 Vaḷamwaḍe ; DGD. ; वळंवडे	E ;	13-4	3·7 ;	1002 ;	194 ;	490.	Tala Bazar	3-0
1459 Vāḷavaḍ ; RJP. ; वाळवड.	E ;	24-0	3·4 ;	525 ;	100 ;	433.	Kharepatan	16-0
1460 Vālāval ; KDL. ; वालावल	W ;	6-0	5·0 ;	3320 ;	603 ;	2125.	Local	...
1461 Vāḷavaṭi ; CLN. ; वाळवटी	E ;	9-0	2·5 ;	789 ;	132 ;	741.	Morawane	2-0
1462 Vālope ; CLN. ; वालोपे.	NW ;	3-0	2·0 ;	829 ;	151 ;	666.	Chiplun	3-0
1463 Vālote ; MDG. ; वालोते.	SE ;	10-0	1·6,	789 ;	159 ;	611.	Latwan	1-4
1464 Vālye ; RJP. ; वाल्ये.	S ;	12-0	6·5 ;	931 ;	194 ;	610.	Kada	10-0

Railway St. : Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Belgaum	72-0	Local	Tue.	...	Vengurla	7-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Ca. (Weavers Society); 2 tl.; M.
					Vengurla	10-0		
Kolhapur	63-0	Kankavli	Tue.	3-0	Local	...	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs; 6 tl.; M.; dh.; Gopuri.
					Malvan	26-0		
Karad	91-0	Local		8-0	Dapoli	9-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.; dh.; ch.
					Harnai	17-0		
Mumbra	100-0	Mhapral	Fri.	7-4	...	...	w.	Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.
					Mhapral	6-0		
Kolhapur	87-0	Lanje	Tue.	7-0	Local	...	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud.; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 5 tl
					Ratnagiri	33-0		
Karad	85-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	3-0	w.; rv.	2 tl.
					Dabhol	9-0		
Kolhapur	77-0	Harcheri	Mon.	11-0	Pali	2-0	cl.; w.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 2 tl.; lib.
					...	12-0		
Karad	104-0	Camp-Dapoli	...	4-0	...	...	rv.	tl.
					Harnai	12-0		
Kolhapur	70-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	3-0	Deogad	10-0	w.; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 4 tl.
					Deogad	13-0		
Kolhapur	50-0	Pachal	Sun.	4-0	Kharepatan	16-0	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
					Musakaji	40-0		
Belgaum	75-0	Local	Tue.	...	Local	...	t.; w.	5 Sl (4 pr h).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 1 to 9.; 6 tl.; lib.; dp; Narayan's Temple famous for its Sculpture.
					Vengurla	19-0		
Karad	60-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	8-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
Karad	60-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	2-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. phg. Sud. 15.; 2 tl.; mq.
Mumbra	125-0	Mhapral	Fri.	22-0	...	...	w.	2 Sl (pr. h).; 2 tl.; 2 mq.
					Mhapral	18-0		
Kolhapur	77-0	Kharepatan	Tue.	5-0	...	...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15, Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; tl.
					Musakaji	25-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) : Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1465 Vanagule ; LNJ. ; वनगुळे,	S ; 6-0	3·9 ; 932 ; 181 ; 913.	Lanje 5-0
1466 Vanand ; DPL. ; वणंद	NW ; 2-0	1·6 ; 573 ; 107 ; 365.	Camp-Dapoli. 3-0
1467 Vāndrī ; SGR. ; वांद्री	NW ; 20-0	2·2 ; 763 ; 165 ; 583.	Local ...
1468 Vāṇśī ; KDL. ; वांषी	E ; 26-0	1·5 ;	Deserted ...
1469 Vānivaḍe ; DGD. ; वानिवडे	E ; 9-0	3·3 ; 1235 ; 253 ; 733.	Tambane 2-0
1470 Vānośī Tarf Nātū ; DPL. ; वानोषी तर्फ नातू	E ; 10-4	2·1 ; 622 ; 112 ; 531.	Palgad 3-0
1471 Vāṇośī Tarf Pañcanadī ; DPL. ; वाणोषी तर्फ पंचनदी	S ; 14-0	4·6 ; 1341 ; 323 ; 659.	Kolthare 4-0
1472 Vañzole ; SGR. ; वांझोळे	E ; 4-0	3·7 ; 1170 ; 224 ; 1126.	Devrukh 3-0
1473 Vāñzaloli ; DPL. ; वांझळोली	N ; 20-0	3·6 ; 744 ; 180 ; 496.	Kelshi 9-0
1474 Vāpholi ; SWT. ; वाफोली	NW ; 10-0	2·5 ; 1032 ; 239 ; 868.	Banda 2-0
1475 Varāḍ ; MLV. ; वराड	E ; 15-0	6·5 ; 3450 ; 700 ; 2084.	Local ...
1476 Varavaḍe ; RTN. ; वरवडे	N ; 16-0	4·4 ; 2879 ; 597 ; 1177.	Local ...
1477 Varavalī ; KD. ; वरवली	E ; 13-0	2·4 ; 664 ; 141 ; 588.	Mahalunge 4-0
1478 Varaveli ; GHR. ; वरवेली	E ; 3-0	4·6 ; 1064 ; 223 ; 1063.	Palshet 4-0
1479 Vāragānv ; KVL. ; वारगांव	N ; 28-0	5·1 ; 1431 ; 288 ; 1399.	Nadgive 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	85-0	Lanje	Tue.	5-0	Lanje	5-0	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 5 tl.
					Ratnagiri	32-0		
Karad	102-0	Camp-Dapoli.	...	3-0	Dapoli	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
					Harnai	7-0		
Kolhapur	81	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	10	...	2-0	w. ; rv.; n.	Sl (pr). ; 2 tl. ; dh. ; ch.
...	...	Deserted	...	...	Deserted	...	...	Deserted.
Kolhapur	80-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	2-4	Deogad	12-0	w. ; cl. ; o.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; pyt. ; 6 tl.
					Deogad	11-0		
Karad	118-0	Palgad	3-0	...	...	...	w.	2 tl.
					Harnai	19-0		
Karad	112-0	Dabhol	...	4-0	Dabhol	4-0	w. ; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 3 tl.
					Dabhol	3-0		
Kolhapur	58	Deorukh	Sun.	3	Sangameshwar.	4-0	w. ; rv.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; 2 tl.
Karad	125-0	Kelshi	...	9-0	Harnai	9-0	w. ; cl.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; 3 tl.
					Dabhol	10-0		
Belgaum	73-0	Banda	Mon.	2-0	Banda	2-0	w. ; rv	Sl (pr) ; pyt. ; Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10. ; 5 tl.
					Vengurla	23-0		
Kolhapur	80-0	Katta	Fri.	4-0	Katta	2-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp). ; 5 tl. ; dh. ; Cch.
					Malvan	14-0		
Kolhapur	100-0	Local	Daily	...	...	3-0	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp).; 6 tl. ; 2 dh. ; lib.
					Tivari	1-0		
Karad	99-0	Khed	...	14-0	Khed	13-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr). ; 4 tl.
Karad	88-0	......	..	...	Guhagar	3-0	w. ; t.	Sl (pr). ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Vad. 1. ; 2 tl.
					Palshet	5-0		
Kolhapur	85-0	Kankavli	Tue.	5-0	Local	..	w.	Sl (pr.) ; pyt. ; 2 tl.
					Vijaydurg	34-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1480 Varde ; KDL ; वर्दे	E ; 9–4	3·8 ; 1365 ; 252 ; 1177.	Kasal 6–0
1481 Vāreli ; CLN ; वारेली	SE ; 25–0	2·4 ; 471 ; 117 ; 459.	Veer 5–0
1482 Varavaḍe ; KVL ; वरवडे	W ; 4–0	4·0 ; 2240 ; 495 ; 1669.	Local ...
1483 Vāśi Tarf Devarukh ; SGR ; वाशी तर्फ देवरुख	W ; 5–0	3·8 ; 1017 ; 184 ; 951.	Kondkadamrao 3–0
1484 Vāśi Tarf Saṅgameśvar ; SGR ; वाशी तर्फ संगमेश्वर	NE ; 15–0	3·3 ; 1094 ; 227 ; 892.	Teryen 6–0
1485 Vasoli ; KDL ; वसोली	E ; 25–0	5·3 ; 378 ; 69 ; 348.	Mangaon 13–0
1486 Vāṭad ; RTN ; वाटद	N ; 32–0	7·5 ; 2027 ; 483 ; 1182.	Kaspuri 4–0
1487 Vāṭūḷ ; RJP ; वाटूळ	N ; 11–0	5·1 ; 1288 ; 249 ; 1128.	Oni 2–0
1488 Vāvaghar ; DPL ; वावघर	S ; 22–0	1·2 ; 759 ; 144 ; 446.	Local ...
1489 Vāve Tarf Kheḍ ; KD ; वावे तर्फ खेड	E ; 27–0	3·1 ; 936 ; 193 ; 875.	Morvane 6–0
1490 Vāve Tarf Nātū ; KD ; वावे तर्फ नातू	E ; 9–0	2·2 ; 728 ; 138 ; 663.	Khavati 2–0
1491 Vāyaṅgaṇe ; SGR ; वायगणे	W ; 9–0	2·3 ; 699 ; 141 ; 679.	Wandri 9–0
1492 Vāyaṅgaṇi ; RTN ; वायंगणी	S ; 4–0	0·8 ; 389 ; 72 ; 329.	Ratnagiri 5–0
1493 Vāyaṅgaṇī ; KVL ; वायंगणी	N ; 34–0	1·5 ; 358 ; 78 ; 291.	Kharepatan 2–0
1494 Vāyaṅgaṇi ; MLV ; वायंगणी	N ; 9–0	3·4 ; 932 ; 180 ; 907.	Local ...

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand : Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	78-0	Kadaval	Fri.	1-0	Kadaval	1-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Shri Dev Raval nath Fr. Mrg. Vad. 11 ; 9 tl.
					Malvan	30-0		
Karad	...	......	...	...	Chiplun	18-0	w. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Kolhapur	64-0	Kankavli	Tue.	4-0	Kankavli	3-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (fmg). ; Bhairavi Fr. Mrg. Vad. 6 ; 2 tl. ; 2 mq. ; Cch.
					Deogad	48-0		
Kolhapur	65	Deorukh	Sun.	4	Deorukh	4-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur	71	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	12	...	8-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr). ; 5 tl.
Belgaum	90-0	Dukanwad	Sun.	2-0	Nerur K. Narur.	1-0	w.	Sl (pr). ; Shri Devi Sateri Fr. Ps. Sud. 2. ; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	26-0		
Kolhapur	96-0	Saitavade	Sat.	4-0	...	4-0	w. ; rv.	4 Sl (4 pr). ; 2 Cs. ; 4 tl.
					Tiv_ri	6-0		
Kolhapur	92-0	Rajapur	Wed.	12-0	...	...	w.	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; 4 tl. ; dh.
					Musakaji	28-0		
Karad	116-0	Local	...	...	Dapoli	8-0	w ; rv. ; pl.	Sl (pr). ; Cs. (mp). Ur. Mg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; 2 mq. ; dg.
					Dabhol	11-0		
Karad	80-0	Khed	...	14-0	Bahadur Shaikh.	12-0	w. ; pit	3 Sl (3 pr). ; pyt. ; 3 tl.
Satara Road.	80-0	Khed	...	12-0	...	...	w.	Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	71	Sangameshwar.	Wed.	22-0	...	...	rv. ; n.	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	100-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	6-0	...	...	w.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
					Ranpar	3-0		
Kolhapur	80-0	Phonda	Tue.	2-0	Phonda	2-0	w.	Si (pr) ; 2 tl.
					Vijaydurg	40-0		
Kolhapur	90-0	Hadi	Sat.	3-0	Hadi	1-0	w.	4 Sl (3 pr, r.. ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 4 tl.
					Achare	4-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1495 Vayangavade ; MLV ; वायंगवडे.	NE ; 18-0	3·4 ; 932 ; 180 ; 907.	Galwan 1-4
1496 Vareri ; DGD ; वरेरी.	E ; 10-4	6·5 ; 1173 ; 242 ; 933.	Tale Bazar 3-0
1497 Vyāhāli ; KD ; व्याहाळी.	E ; 22-4	2·0 ; 266 ; 47 ; 259.	Mahalunge 6-0
1498 Vazare ; SWT ; वझरें.	NE ; 28-0	4·1 ; 713 ; 170 ; 609.	Kasai 4-0
1499 Vehele ; CLN ; वेहेळे.	E ; 7-0	3·0 ; 1439 ; 272 ; 1115.	Kanhe ...
1500 Veladūr ; GHR ; वेळदूर.	N , 8-0	3·3 , 1933 ; 410 ; 549.	Peth-Anjanwel 2-0
1501 Velagave ; DGD ; वेळगवे.	S. W ; 33-0	3·9 ; 374 ; 66 ; 358.	Phanasgaon 1-4
1502 Velaneśvar ; GHR ; वेळणेश्वर.	S ; 14-0	3·3 ; 1673 ; 344 ; 884.	Hedvi 4-0
1503 Velamb ; GHR ; वेळंब.	S ; 8-4	4·2 ; 1568 ; 337 ; 1221	Local ...
1504 Velās ; MDG ; वेळास.	W ; 22-0	3·2 ; 3064 ; 578 ; 944.	Local ...
1505 Velavi ; DPL ; वेळवी.	N ; 12-0	2·2 ; 487 ; 104 ; 405.	Kudawale 5-0
1506 Velavaṇd ; RTN. ; वेळवंड.	E ; 15-4	4·0 ; 1271 ; 267 ; 1268.	Pali 4-0
1507 Vengurle ; VGR. ; वेंगुर्ले.	H. Q ; ...	27·6 ; 22778 ; 4824 ; 6222.	Local ...
1508 Veral ; LNJ. ; वेरळ.	N ; 5-0	3·0 ; 1218 ; 245 ; 1021.	Lanje 7-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance. / Port: Distance.		Drinking water facilities;.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	68-0	Katta	Fri.	5-0	Katta	3-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; Dahikala Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15.; 7 tl.
					Malvan	27-0		
Kolhapur	74-0	Tale Bazar	Thu.	3-0	Deogad	11-0	w.; cl.	2 Sl (2 pr).; 4 tl.
					Deogad	11-0		
Karad	102-0	Khed	...	22-0	Ambaoli	10-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
Belgaum	92-0	Dicholi	Wed.	7-0	Dodamarga	5-0	w.; rv.	Sl (m).; 2 tl.
					Vengurla	36-0		
Karad	54-0	......	...	...	Chiplun	9-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 3 tl.; mq.
Karad	88-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	9-0	rv. w; n.	3 Sl (3 pr).; pyt. 3 tl.; mq.; dh.
					Dabhol	1-0		
Kolhapur	52-0	Talere	Tue.	4-0	Vijaydurg	32-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr).; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.; 2 tl.
					Vijaydurg	31-0		
Karad	96-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	11-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 6 tl.; lib.; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.
					Borya	3-0		
Karad	83-0	......	...	...	Guhagar	10-0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m).; pyt.; 6 tl.
					Dabhol	18-0		
Mumbra	115-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Anjarle	12-0	w.; pl.	4 Sl (4pr).; Cs (mp).; Shri Durga Fr. Ct. Sud. 5; Shri Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 8 tl.; 7 mq.; 2 dg.; dh.; ch.; 2 lib.; dp.;
					Bankot	1-0		
Karad	96-0	Kudawale	...	5-0	Dapoli	7-0	w.; spr	Sl (pr).; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 to Vad. 5.; 3 tl.
					Harnai	12-0		
Kolhapur	72-0	Harchari	Mon.	5-0	Charveli	2-0	w.; rv. n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.
					...	...		
Belgaum	78-0	Local	Mon.	...	Local	...	w.	32 Sl (h. 3m, 28 pr).; Mun.; 7Cs (mp).; Shri Rameshwar Fr. Kt. Vad. 11. Mg. Vad. 13.; 42 tl.; 3M.; 3mq.; dg.; 3 dh.; gym.; 5 lib.; 7 dp.; 6 Cch.; (inclusive of the non-municipal area).
					Local	1-4		
Kolhapur;	73-0	Lanje	Tues.	11-0	Dasgaon	16-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr.); tl.
					Bankot	8-0		

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1509 Veral ; KD. ; वेरळ..	E ; 1-0	1·9 ; 854 ; 161 ; 733.	Mahalunge 6-0
1510 Veral ; MLV. ; वेरळ..	N. E ; 13-0	2·7 ; 1031 ; 193 ; 643.	Virun 2-4
1511 Veral Tarf Nātū ; MDG. ; वेरळ तर्फ नातू.	S. W ; 12-0	1·4 ; 356 ; 80 ; 350.	Palavni 2-0
1512 Veral Tarf Veśvi ; MDG. ; वेरळ तर्फ वेश्वी.	W ; 14-0	1·4 ; 274 ; 66 ; 272.	Bankot 5-0
1513 Veravalī Bk. ; LNJ. ; वेरवली बुद्रुक.	E ; 7-0	3·8 ; 2001 ; 381 ; 1673.	Local ...
1514 Veravalī Kh. ; LNJ. ; वेरवली खुर्द.	E ; 8-0	2·7 ; 973 ; 179 ; 754.	Veravli Bk. 1-0
1515 Verle ; SWT. ; वेर्ले.	E ; 16-0	9·9 ; 1461 ; 291 ; 1433.	Kalmist 3-0
1516 Vesavi ; MDG. ; वेसवी.	W ; 18-0	4·0 ; 2529 ; 475 ; 601.	Local ...
1517 Vesurle ; LNJ. ; वेसुर्ल.	N. W ; 10-6	0·3 ; 85 ; 18 ; 79.	Ibrahimpattan 3-0
1518 Vetore ; VGR. ; वेतोरे.	S. E ; 6-0	5·4 ; 2152 ; 429 ; 1449.	Local ...
1519 Vetośi ; RTN. ; वेतोशी.	N ; 12-0	5·7 ; 989 ; 236 ; 778.	Kotavde 2-0
1520 Vetye ; SWT. ; वेत्ये.	W ; 4-4	1·9 ; 677 ; 144 ; 502.	Malgaon 2-0
1521 Vhel ; LNJ. ; व्हेळ.	S. E ; 12-0	3·7 ; 1075 ; 219 ; 1069.	Valud 5-0
1522 Virdi ; SWT. ; विर्डी.	... 36-0	7·7 ; 621 ; 131 ; 589.	Kasai 13-0
1523 Vighravali ; SGR. ; विघ्रवली.	S. E ; 4-0	1·9 ; 612 ; 95 ; 565.	Kasamb 4-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad	84-0	Khed	...	3-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	7-0 20-0	w. ; cl	2 Sl (2 pr.) ; 3 tl. ; 2 mq.
Kolhapur	90-0	Viran	Wed.	2-4	Khed ...	3-0 ...	w. ; rv	Sl (pr.) ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 3 tl. ; cch.
Mumbra	127-0	Mhapral	Fri.	18-0	Local Malvan	... 15-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; pyt. ; Fr. Mrg. Vad. 14. ; 2 tl. ; M.
Mumbre	120-0	Panderi	Thu.	11-0	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...
Kolhapur	87-0	Lanje	Tue.	7-0	Dapoli Mhapral	20-0 20-0	w.	tl.
Kolhapur	86-0	Lanje	Tue.	6-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	7-0 30-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr.) ; pyt. ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; 6 tl. ; lib.
Belgaum	60-0	Amboli	Sun.	5-0	Lanje Ratnagiri	8-0 32-0	w.	Sl. (pr.) ; pyt. ; Vishveshwar Fr. Mg. Vad. 30. ; 7 tl.
Mumbra	113-0	Panderi	Thu.	10-0	Sawant-wadi Vengurla	15-0 36-0	w. ; n. ; rv.	Sl (pr.) ; 3 tl.
Kolhapur	88-0	Harcheri	Mon.	3-0	Dasgaon Bankot	30-0 2-0	w.	3 Sl. (3 pr.) ; pyt. ; Kalamba Devi Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; 7 tl. ; 3 mq. ; 4 dg.
Belgaum	74-0	Vengurla	Mon.	5-0	Pali Versule	7-3 14-0	cl.	tl.
Kolhapur	90-0	Ratnagiri	Daily	8-0	Vengurla Vengurla	6-0 9-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr.) ; pyt. ; 3 tl. ; M. ; 3 mq. Shri Devi Sateri Fr. Kt. Sud. 5. ; Silica ores.
Balgaum	68-0	Sawantwadi	Tue.	5-0	Kasarveli Ratnagiri	8-0 12-0	cl. ; w	Sl (pr.) ; pyt. , 2 tl.
Kolhapur	92-0	Lanje	Tue.	10-0	Banda Vengurla	6-0 12-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; Cs (lmg). ; Shri Kaleshwar Fr. Mrg. Sud. 1. ; tl. ; lib.
Belgaum	102-0	Sakhali	Mon.	8-0	Prabhara-valli Ratnagiri	8-0 42-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; pyt ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; Holi Paurnima Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 2 tl. ; lib.
Kolhapur	65-0	Deorukh	Sun.	4-4	Dodamarga Vengurla	10-0 54-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (m). ; tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1524 Vijayadurg ; DGD. ; विजयदुर्ग	N ; 18-0	2·0 ; 2506 ; 514 ; 96.	Local ...
1525 Vilavade ; SWT. ; विलवडे	S. E ; 8-0	2·5 ; 903 ; 189 ; 807.	Tamboli 2-0
1526 Vilavade ; LNJ. ; विलवडे	S. E ; 8-0	4·0 ; 963 ; 195 ; 863.	Vaked 5-0
1527 Vilye ; RTN. ; विल्ये ..	E ; 25-0	2·2 ; 301 ; 68 ; 288.	Malgund 10-0
1528 Vilye ; RJP. ; विल्ये ..	S ; 6-0	6·5 ; 1578 ; 340 ; 1010.	Local ...
1529 Vinhe ; MDG. ; विन्हे	S. E ; 10-0	1·8 ; 520 ; 102 ; 468.	Latwan 2-0
1530 Vir ; CLN. ; वीर ..	N.S.W 30-0	6·8 ; 2097 ; 200 ; 1354.	Local ...
1531 Virasai ; DPL. ; विरसई	N ; 21-0	2·5 ; 569 ; 132 ; 524.	Palawni 3-0
1532 Visāpūr ; DPL. ; विसापूर	N ; 16-0	3·2 ; 1185 ; 264 ; 1133.	Palgad 3-0
1533 Vivali ; LNJ. ; विवली.	E ; 3-0	2·4 ; 447 ; 81 ; 375.	Verawli Bk 1-0
1534 Yegānv ; CLN. ; येगांव	N ; 19-0	5·0 ; 1492 ; 300 ; 1293.	Kumbhar Khani Bk. 1-0
1535 Yelavan ; RJP. ; येळवण	N. E ; 15-0	3·1 ; 812 ; 153 ; 809.	Saundal 3-0
1536 Yeradav ; RJP. ; येरडव	E ; 23-0	3·6 ; 568 ; 104 ; 567.	Raypatan 6-0
1537 Yeravande ; LNJ. ; येरवंडे	N ; 4-0	1·4 ; 176 ; 37 ; 175.	Lanje 5-0

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand : Distance. Port : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur 108-0	Kharepatan Tue. 26-0	Deorukh 4-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr.) ; 4 tl.
Belgaum 69-0	Banda Mon. 4-0	Local ... Local ...	w.	2 Sl (2 pr.) ; pyt. ; 2 Cs (mp, cr). ; 9 tl. ; mq. ; 4 dg. ; dh. ; lib. ; 3 dp. ; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. ; Cch. ; Vijaydurg Fort.
Kolhapur 89-0	Lanje Tue 14-0	Sawantwadi. 7-0 Vengurla 24-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr.) ; Shri Dev Mauli Fr. Kt. Vad. 6. ; 2 tl. ; Cch.
Kolhapur 84-0	Phungus Tue. 6-0	Lanjo 8-0 Ratnagiri 38-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr.) ; Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 10. ; 4 tl. ;
Kolhapur 93-0	Rajapur Wed. 7-0	Dasgaon 12-0 Mhapral 20-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; Maruti Fr. Mrg. Vad. 11. 4 tl.
Mumbra 120-0	Mhapral Fri. 20-0	... 6-0 Ratnagiri 17-0	cl. ; t.	Sl (pr.) ; 2 tl.
Karad ...	....	Chiplun 25-0	w. ; rv. cl.	4 Sl (4 pr.) ; pyt. ; Kartiki Utsav ; Kt. Vad. 11. Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15. ; 7 tl. ; 4 M. ; lib. ; dp.
Karad 117-0	Palvani ... 3-0	Harnai 18-0 Harnai 14-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; pyt. ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Vad. 1. ; 3 tl.
Karad 117-0	Palgad ... 3-0	Palgad 10-0 Harnai 24-0	w.	2 Sl (2 pr.) ; Cs (mp). ; 5 tl. ; mq. dg.
Kolhapur 84-0	Lanje Tue. 4-0	Lanja 3-0 Ratnagiri 29-0	w. ; t.	Cs (mp). ; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. ; tl.
Karad ...	....	Chiplun 20-0	w. ; rv.	4 Sl (4 pr.) ; 4 tl.
Kolhapur 50-0	Pachal Sun. 5-0	Oni 8-0 Musakaji 32-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur 93-0	Talvade Sun. 6-0	Oni. 18-0 Musakaji 39-0	w. ; rv.	Sl (pr.) ; Shimga Fr. Phg. Sud. 15 ; 2 tl.
Kolhapur 75-0	Lanje Tue. 5-0	Lanja 3-0 Ratnagiri 25-0	w.	Sl (pr.) ; tl.

Serial No. ; Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi.	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
1538 Zāpaḍe ; LNJ. ; झापडे	W ; 3-0	2·0 ; 566 ; 105 ; 453.	Lanje 3-0
1539 Zārāp ; KDL. ; झाराप	S ; 7-0	3·0 ; 1608 ; 343 ; 1274.	Local ...
1540 Zare ; SWT. ; झरे	... 27-0	2·6 ; 259 ; 54 ; 258.	Bhedshi 2-0
1541 Zarye ; RJP. ; झर्ये	S. E ; 20-0	3·0 ; 668 ; 129 ; 603.	Raypatan 6-0
1542 Zombaḍi ; GHR. ; झोंबडी	E ; 10-3	3·2 ; 850 ; 184 ; 657.	Ginvi 3-0
1543 Zoḷambe ; SWT. ; झोळंबे	E ; 15-0	4·2 ; 759 ; 139 , 745.	Tamboli 6-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance. / Port : Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Kolhapur	83-0	Lanje	Thu.	3-0	Lanje	3-0	W. ; rv.	Sl (pr.) ; 2 tl.
					Ratnagiri	28-0		
Belgaum	68-0	Local	Tue	...	Local	...	W. ; Str.; O.	2 Sl (2 pr.) ; Pyt. ; Shri Devi Bhavai Fr. Kt. Vad. 10. ; 3 tl. mq. ; dg. ; dh.
					Vengurla	14-0		
Belgaum	90-0	Banda	Mon.	18-0	Bhedshi	2-0	W.	Sl (m.) ; tl.
					Vengurla	39-0		
Kolhapur	93-0	Pachal	Sun.	5-0	...	...	W.	tl.
					Musakaji	38-0		
Karad	77-0	...	...	...	Guhagar	12-0	W.	Sl (pr). ; tl. ; mq. ; dg.
					Dabhol	20-0		
Belgaum	72-0	Banda	Mon.	12-0	Banda	14-0	n. ; Spr	Sl (pr). ; 3 tl.
					Vengurla	26-0		

BOMBAY : PRINTED AT THE GOVERNMENT CENTRAL PRESS.

INDEX

(G.C.P.) L-A VF 4174—67 (1,000—7-62)